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ABSTRACT

This issue includes the following articles and reviews: "Lexical Issues in the University ESL Writing Class" (Mary Lowry); "Interlanguage Pragmatics: What Can It Offer to Language Teachers?" (Aya Matsuda); "Promoting Collaboration: Using Computer-Mediated Communication Tools in the Practicum Course" (Lia Kamhi-Stein); "Teaching ESL Online" (Mark Lieu); "Teaching English as a Sexist Language: Assessing and Addressing Gender Bias in ELT" (Mary Shepard Wong); "New Dialogues in Mainstream/ESL Teacher Collaboration" (Rod Case); "Sequencing Information Competency Skills in an ESL Program" (Dona J. Mitoma, Kathryn Son); "K-12 Education in the Post Proposition 227 Era" (Susan Dunlap); "English Language Development Standards: The California Model" (Natalie Kuhlman, Adel Nadeau); "Responding to Change: A Small District Staff Development Model" (Linda Sasser); "After Proposition 227: Crises, Challenges, and Concerns" (Sara Fields); "Pay No Attention to the Man Behind the Curtain: Taking a Critical Look at the Internet and Language Teaching" (Kirsten Lincoln); "Simplified Literature in the Intermediate ESL Classroom" (Lindsay M. Donigan). Reviews: "Teaching Science to Language Minority Students: Theory and Practice" by Judith Rosenthal (Marilena Christodorescu); "Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition: A Rationale for Pedagogy" edited by James Coady and Thomas Huckin (Ellen Lipp); "Newbury House Guide to Writing" by M.E. Sokolik (Moira Stuart); "Pronunciation Power" (Scott Bean); "Grade Quick!" (Tomi Cunningham). Charts, tables, and references appear throughout as appropriate. (KFT)

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The CATESOL Journal

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The CATESOL Journal

EDITORS' NOTE

This is the second issue of *The CATESOL Journal* to appear under the co-editorship of Donna Brinton and Robby Ching. Assisting Susan Orlofsky as Review Editor for this issue is Fred Marshall, who will replace Susan as Review Editor with the next issue of the journal.

Beginning with this issue, we are introducing a new section of the journal, Theme Articles. This section, edited by a different guest editor each issue, contains solicited articles on a topic of special relevance to the CATESOL membership. It replaces the previous format of occasional special issues on highlighted topics such as issue 5.1 (content-based instruction), issue 7.1 (learning beyond the classroom), and issue 9.1 (articulation). This issue's theme editor is Susan Dunlap, a K-12 educator, teacher trainer, and member of the journal's Editorial Advisory Board. Proposed themes for future issues include intercultural communication (issue 12.1), non-native educator issues (issue 13.1), and generation 1.5 (issue 14.1). We hope that readers will enjoy this new hybrid format, which allows us to publish a broader spectrum of articles on one high interest topic along with our regular selection of refereed articles, CATESOL Exchange pieces, and reviews.

This issue spans a range of issues designed to appeal to a broad spectrum of our membership. In the Articles section, readers will find articles concerning the theory and practice of: teaching vocabulary in academic settings (Lowry); the contributions of interlanguage pragmatics to language pedagogy (Matsuda); the use of course management software in the TESL field practicum (Kamhi-Stein); the efficacy of on-line ESL courses at the community college level

(Lieu); assessing gender bias in ESL/EFL materials (Wong); collaboration between ESL and mainstream teachers in the K-12 setting; and a survey of the need for library information competencies in ESL community college courses.

Following the Articles section is our new section containing Theme Articles. For this issue, Susan Dunlap has chosen to focus on the many challenges CATESOL K-12 educators face in educating English learners in California and Nevada. In light of California's passage of Proposition 227 (the Unz initiative), Susan and the theme authors discuss how CATESOL members have reacted to the need for standards (Kuhlman & Nadeau), staff development (Sasser), and materials/curriculum development and best practices (Fields) to meet this challenge.

In this issue's CATESOL Exchange section, our authors encourage readers to reassess the place of the Internet (Lincoln) and simplified literature (Donigan) in their ESL/EFL curricula. Finally, in the Review section, Fred Marshall and Susan Orlofsky have compiled reviews of several teacher resource texts, an ESL writers' guide, and two ESL software programs.

We sincerely hope that readers find this compilation of articles, exchange pieces, and reviews to be of interest and relevance to the issues they face in their professional lives—whether they are first entering this profession or have served for years as classroom teachers, teacher trainers, program administrators, or curriculum developers.

Donna Brinton
Coeditor

Robby Ching
Coeditor

The CATESOL Journal

MARY S. LOWRY
University of California Davis

Lexical Issues in the University ESL Writing Class

■ **This article addresses the important connections between lexical knowledge and second language writing. Based on a review of the literature, it enumerates the effects of limited lexical knowledge on student writing and presents evidence that immigrant students in college and university ESL writing programs are in particular need of strategies and tools for increasing their knowledge of vocabulary. In addition to outlining relevant goals for ESL lexical study, the author suggests a range of useful activities such as the use of learners' dictionaries and lexical journals, the integration of grammar and vocabulary study, and ways in which lexical issues can be foregrounded throughout the various stages of the writing process.**

It is time to think about the important link between lexical knowledge and second language writing. ESL and mainstream writing classes at colleges and universities in California and nationwide are serving more and more students for whom English is a second language. In developing methodology and materials, ESL practitioners have looked carefully at the writing process and thoroughly debated many important questions including the appropriate roles of reading and grammar work in the ESL writing class (Byrd & Reid, 1998; Carson & Leki, 1993; Kroll, 1990; Leki, 1992; Reid, 1993). One still-neglected element essential for the second language writer is vocabulary. What do we know about the importance of lexical knowledge for successful writing and about its place in the writing curriculum?

In research on vocabulary acquisition (Coady, 1997b; Coady & Huckin, 1997; Ellis, 1994; Hatch & Brown, 1995; Huckin, Haynes & Coady, 1993; Krashen, 1993; Parry, 1991), the predominant focus is on

issues of input such as the important connections between vocabulary acquisition and reading or listening. Production of vocabulary in speaking and writing is often described as a "later" and more demanding step along the continuum of acquiring a word (Gass, 1988), but specific strategies for mastering vocabulary for writing have not been explored as fully as have more general strategies for learning new words and remembering them (see Schmitt, 1998 for a comprehensive list of strategies). For example, in Nation's classic *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary* (1990), thirty pages are devoted to reading whereas a scant eleven pages are devoted to writing (two of which discuss spelling). In part, this imbalance may be explained by an assumption that instruction in vocabulary is most necessary for beginners and that later vocabulary learning derives almost exclusively from "context" (Coady, 1997a; Krashen, 1993).

When teaching writing, particularly when working with relatively advanced students of English, teachers may assume that vocabulary study is going on independently (Oxford & Scarcella, 1994); however, many writing instructors in college-level ESL programs feel that students who test into such programs typically have limited lexical resources and often have not learned essential academic vocabulary well enough to use it effectively in writing. These same students may not possess useful strategies for learning more about words and how to use them. Recent documentation of the problems of immigrant students in writing programs suggests that their word-study strategies need to be improved. Scarcella (1996) reports that students from the University of California Irvine, for example, show marked limitations in their knowledge of basic academic words and that their writing includes many confusions such as "acoustic approximations" (p. 131), word form errors, inappropriate use of words from the oral register, and misuse of many other lexical items.[1] A similar report from the University of California Davis describes confusions between similar words or forms, preposition errors, and markedly poor control of abstract language (Lange & ter Haar, 1997).

How important an issue is vocabulary learning for the ESL writing student at the college level? ESL writers themselves, including students who have successfully completed English for Academic Purposes (EAP) or ESL programs, emphasize that increased vocabulary knowledge is an ongoing need (Leki & Carson, 1994), and an earlier study shows that many students believe vocabulary errors are the most serious of all the error types (Politzer, 1978 as cited in Gass, 1988). This latter idea is supported in the literature, which suggests that lexical errors can disrupt meaning for a reader far more drastically than grammatical errors (Gass, 1988; Widdowson, 1978 as cited in Zimmerman, 1997b). Gass suggests, for example, that a phonologically based vocabulary error, such as using the word *tragedies*

instead of *strategies*, may seriously cloud meaning while a sentence containing morphological errors may still be clear even though it is not correct. University faculty agree with Gass's point as shown in the Santos study (1988) in which instructors from the physical sciences and humanities/social sciences rated lexical errors as the most unacceptable of writing errors in ESL essays.

Recent literature on teaching writing to second language students does not provide much guidance for the treatment of lexical issues in the writing classroom. Looking as an example at Reid's (1993) *Teaching ESL Writing*, one finds no direct references to vocabulary instruction in the writing class despite the fact that Reid includes vocabulary as a grading criterion in several sample essay evaluation scales and mentions that writers need a broader range of vocabulary than speakers do. Reid's omission can undoubtedly be understood as part of the move away from viewing writing classes as special types of language classes and toward viewing them as "writing based" and devoted to "the study of composition techniques and strategies" (p. 29).

In a process-oriented classroom, word choice, along with grammar and syntax errors, may be relegated to the editing stage of the process. For instance, White and Arndt suggest in their book *Process Writing* that using a dictionary to make vocabulary corrections is a step that should occur at the very end of the writing process (cited in Scholfield, 1998). Similarly, "error awareness" approaches to sentence level issues in writing [2] may include word choice as an error type and depend on the student to correct such errors when editing. However, at least two major problems arise when considering vocabulary primarily as an editing issue. First, marking "ww/wrong word" or "wc/word choice" is not likely to suggest a strategy for correction to the ESL student. Consulting an English/English dictionary about a word choice error may not be possible since the only word to look up may be the one which has already been flagged as incorrect. Thus, the correction of the vocabulary error may not occur. Second, words affect the quality of writing and the clarity of students' ideas much earlier in the writing process than an editing approach might suggest. The real goal of a vocabulary emphasis should be the ability to generate writing, not just to correct it.

Eloquent acknowledgment of the importance of vocabulary development in the writing classroom can be found, for example, in Raimes (1985), who states that we need to let students take advantage of the "extraordinary generative power of language" and offer them "what is always in short supply in the writing classroom—time...for attention to vocabulary" (p. 248). Raimes believes that many of the activities in the writing classroom will help students learn vocabulary. She maintains that "what the less proficient writ-

ers need, compared with unskilled L1 writers is...more opportunity to talk, listen, read and write in order to marshal the vocabulary they need to make their own background knowledge accessible to them in their L2" (p. 250).

In fact, it can be shown that limited lexical knowledge profoundly affects second language academic writing in a variety of ways. In the most general sense, holistic evaluation of writing has been shown to correlate positively with measures of lexical richness and variety, adjusted for error (Engber, 1995; Laufer & Nation, 1995). Thus, limited vocabulary can result in disappointing evaluations. More specifically, a number of effects on the writing process can be seen. Krapels (1990) found that some students who lacked sufficient vocabulary resorted to their L1 as part of their writing process. Up to a point, the technique of using L1 vocabulary in the earliest drafts may be beneficial as it helps students keep the flow of the composing process going. Less desirable is the effect of limited vocabulary on ESL students' rate of writing; they draft very slowly as they search for the right word to express what they are thinking (Leki & Carson, 1994; Raimes, 1985), leading in many cases to serious problems in timed writing situations. Limited vocabulary may also lead to "avoidance" of complex ideas for fear of being unable to express these ideas (Scholfield, 1998 discusses this tendency in EFL students). Spack (1984) has even proposed that students may be severely hampered in invention strategies if they do not have the vocabulary knowledge to explore freely amongst ideas for a topic in their L2.

Other outcomes of limited vocabulary are less well documented but well known to classroom teachers. Some students with weak vocabulary skills may closely paraphrase or directly and sometimes extensively "lift" from reading passages, using words and phrases in the passage that the students seem to feel will express what they want to say better than they could express it themselves. Another familiar consequence of a small vocabulary is that students may write "primer prose" (short choppy sentences with markedly poor coherence) or, conversely and somewhat ironically, may ramble and become wordy as they put together many simple words, when one would do—if only that one word were known! In some cases, the student who wants a larger vocabulary resorts to wholesale use of a thesaurus and, without the needed follow-up in a dictionary to check exact meaning and usage, may write unclear if not bizarre sentences.[3] Finally, with or without the sometimes helpful, often harmful thesaurus, the L2 student with limited word knowledge will write sentences that at best may be non-idiomatic or, worse, may violate grammatical restrictions on word usage (e.g., "I satisfy my appearance" or "I suggest you to look up the dictionary").

Teachers of second language writing may rightly feel overwhelmed and discouraged at the prospect of teaching vocabulary. It is well known that the intentional teaching of individual words cannot begin to meet students' needs. Even ten new words per day could not come close to giving students a recognition vocabulary of the size that L1 high school students are said to possess, i.e., between 25,000 and 50,000 different words (Nagy & Anderson, 1982).

Moreover, writing teachers realize that learning a word well enough to use it in writing is a complex task, requiring not just one but repeated exposures to the word in reading or listening (Meara, 1980; Nagy, Herman & Anderson, 1985; Paribakht & Wesche, 1997; Sternberg, 1983). Beyond that, "knowing" a word for writing demands knowledge of many aspects of that word. The concept of a "word-knowledge framework" has proved useful for testing, teaching, and research (Nation, 1990; Schmitt, 1995; Schmitt & Meara, 1997). According to such a framework, "knowing" a word (i.e., gaining something like native-speaker competence) includes at least the following:

1. understanding the word's denotation or meaning (possibly multiple meanings associated with the same spelling)
2. knowing the word's part of speech
3. knowing its frequency
4. understanding its register (formal or informal? appropriate in academic writing? used only by grandparents and small children? in harmony with the diction used in the rest of the student's writing?)
5. knowing its collocations (What other words commonly occur with it? In what common phrases or "chunks" does it occur?)
6. controlling its grammar (How does it work in sentences? Is it countable, uncountable, transitive, causative, reflexive? Can it have both animate and inanimate subjects? Etc.)
7. knowing its connotations (favorable or unfavorable?)
8. being able to make native-like associations with it (other words or concepts that a word will suggest)
9. understanding shades of the word's meaning (literal and figurative, concrete and abstract uses, etc.)
10. knowing its derivations (other members of the word's family and affixes that can be used with the stem of the word)
11. knowing its spelling
12. knowing its pronunciation.

(List adapted from Nation, 1990)

Under this expanded definition of "knowing" a word, a wide range of student error in writing can be seen as vocabulary based, and this range includes much more than the simple cases of wrong word choice. For example, a sentence such as "She frightened the high cliffs of the Grand Canyon" could be analyzed as containing a "grammar" problem involving omission of the copula or mixing active and passive. However, from the learner's point of view it might be more useful to suggest that the student needs to learn more about the verb *frighten* and the adjective *frightened* and the grammatical structures that they appear in.

It is also clear from the foregoing expanded definition of "knowing" a word that vocabulary acquisition must be seen as "incremental" (Schmitt, 1995) or as progressing along a continuum (Gass, 1988). Thus, even though a student may identify a specific word as "known," there are often many aspects of word knowledge that the student needs to master before the word can be used correctly and effectively in writing (Schmitt & Meara, 1997). Again, this is daunting to the teacher, who will need to devise ways to enhance the incremental acquisition of word knowledge and/or teach advanced students strategies that will help them to independently learn more about the words they use in writing.

Our weakest ESL students, including many of the immigrant students mentioned above, will benefit from a focus on vocabulary and the development of vocabulary acquisition strategies. These students, who have acquired English largely through incidental learning in social rather than academic situations and who may spend the majority of their time with family and peers who speak their L1, have been exposed to the relatively narrow range of words of the informal spoken register plus, in some cases, the interlanguage of their L1 peers (Leki, 1992; Scarcella, 1996). As a result, these language acquirers may seem more limited in the writing class even though they are more fluent than most of their international peers, who usually learn English by reading, rule learning, and vocabulary study. Anecdotally, conversations with immigrant students at UC Davis reveal that many of the weaker language acquirers do not have specific strategies for using the lexical tools available to them; these conversations also reveal that, in their drive to reduce the number of errors in their writing, many of them avoid the risk-taking that experimentation with new vocabulary requires.

It is clear that the university writing teacher cannot begin to provide the direct instruction needed to fill the gap outlined above. However, the writing class does provide a powerful context that can interest students in learning words, train them to ask questions, and help them to develop lexical strategies.

Ways to Achieve a Lexical Focus in a Writing Class

If students in ESL writing classes at the university—advanced students by most definitions—are to be made aware of the importance of expanding their word knowledge, a focus on lexical issues must be established and maintained by the writing instructor; and within the writing curriculum, clear connections must be forged between reading, writing, grammar, and vocabulary. Students must come to realize that the right kind of vocabulary study will not only enhance their reading comprehension but also contribute to their ability to discuss concepts in their writing. At the same time, their accuracy in writing will be enhanced by a growing understanding of the ways in which grammar and lexicon interact and by a growing ability to make use of the reference tools available to them to find information about correct usage.

The typical syllabus refers to writing, reading, and grammar assignments. Where does vocabulary fit in? If vocabulary is to become important to students, they must come to see it as an element integral to their work in each of these areas. This will not happen automatically. Even requiring students to buy a vocabulary textbook or a learners' dictionary does not guarantee that fruitful vocabulary study will occur. Rather, the writing instructor must be committed to foregrounding lexical issues as often as possible in instruction and via specific assignments. The ensuing sections of this article outline various approaches used in some ESL writing classes for undergraduates at the University of California Davis. In this program, incidentally, over 90% of the students fall into the resident immigrant category.

A Place for Vocabulary in Course Goals

Instructors will wish to consider their own goals and objectives for vocabulary study. Such goals and objectives may be presented to the students directly and included in the syllabus. In light of the research summarized above, valuable goals for instructors to consider include:

1. leading students to understand the importance of the intentional study of vocabulary for becoming a good writer
2. suggesting strategies for independent study that students can tailor to their own learning styles and preferences (Oxford & Scarcella, 1994)
3. individualizing vocabulary study by tying it to the students' own writing
4. providing guided practice with a learner's dictionary and alerting students to both the kind of information it contains and the pitfalls inherent in using one (Nesi & Meara, 1994), thus enabling students to use this tool to its full potential

5. familiarizing students with a selected body of academic vocabulary that will be useful in writing for various content area classes
6. providing a response mechanism for instructor feedback, instructor/student dialog, and answers to students' questions about words

If the instructors give out a syllabus on the first day, and that syllabus contains course goals, some of the above goals can be included and highlighted in the first class discussion. For example, if during the first class period the instructors ask students to skim the syllabus to find answers to specific questions, they could include a question that is related to vocabulary (e.g., "When is the first assignment related to vocabulary due?"). It is helpful for the instructors to share a bit of their knowledge of the research related to vocabulary or to advance a hypothesis about the importance of lexical knowledge for writing. The words *syllabus* and *hypothesis* can be presented, moreover, as two important academic terms for ESL students to know.

Given the constraints of time in a writing class, individual instructors may or may not actually include specific vocabulary lessons in the syllabus; however, the above course goals can be carried out in the context of several of the assignments and approaches detailed in the sections below.

The Dictionary Exercise

Assuming that students are required or strongly advised to purchase a learners' dictionary,[4] a first-day assignment that requires students to use the dictionary and explore its format and its "help" sections can reap rewards later in the semester or quarter. Recent investigation of how students actually use learners' dictionaries has revealed that students generally underuse these excellent resources or use them in traditional ways—such as checking spelling or looking up the definitions of unknown words. In spite of the fact that learners' dictionaries use a controlled defining vocabulary (usually of the most frequently used 2000 words), significant misreading of definitions often occurs (Nesi & Meara, 1994; Zimmerman, 1997a). For example, Nesi and Meara give many examples of the so-called "kidrule," by which the student sees a familiar word in a dictionary definition, interprets that as a synonym for the target word, and performs a simple substitution, such as "We must *intersect* the river..." based on the definition: "intersect: divide (sth) by *going across* it" (p. 9). Thus, a learners' dictionary assignment and class discussion of such an assignment can be valuable not only for orienting students to the dictionary and familiarizing them with the codes and terminology used but also for warning them of possible pitfalls in dictionary use. (Some publishers provide workbooks to supplement their dictio-

nary, but such workbooks should be carefully examined by the instructor for the academic focus needed by university writing students.)

A dictionary exercise should require students to survey and sample. It should require them to find useful tables, lists, and sets of directions and to apply what they find to words or sentences of their own. For instance:

a. What does *phr v* stand for? Give several examples of a *phr v.* Include at least one that is not on the list of examples on p. xviii.

b. From the table on word formation, list four suffixes that can be added to a word stem to create a noun. Give examples of your own of one word for each suffix.

c. What do the grammar codes [C] and [U] stand for? Give an example of a familiar noun that has the label [U] in the dictionary.

More importantly, the dictionary exercise should have a section in which students look up designated words and answer questions about them. The instructor can choose sample words that will be immediately useful in the first writing assignment and/or words that are particularly useful for academic writing. It is helpful to choose words with more than one definition, one of which is clearly more likely to be useful in the academic context. *Strategy*, for instance, occurs in military usage as well as in an abstract, uncountable use of *talking strategy,* but students are more likely to use the word in its countable sense of "a *strategy* for ____ing something."

It is also wise to include in this section a verb that governs one of the major patterns of complementation so that students see the abbreviations used for such patterns. The entry for *enable*, for example, will provide an encounter with the boldface code **"enable sb to do sth"** and students can be asked to decipher the meaning of that code.

Finally, establishing the importance of studying example sentences is one of the most important elements in the dictionary orientation. One can share with students the research demonstrating that dictionary users who analyzed sample sentences made fewer errors than those who used dictionaries in other ways (Christianson, 1997). A sample sequence follows:

Look up the noun *strategy.*

1. Which of the three definitions is likely to have an academic use?

2. Are you more likely to use the word *strategy* in a countable [C] or an uncountable [U] sense? _____

3. Application question: Should there be an article in the following sentence? Fill in the blank or write "Ø"
I need _____ *new strategy for learning chemistry formulas.*

4. Look at the example sentence in #3. What preposition is usually used after *strategy*? _____
What verb form follows this preposition? _____

5. In the dictionary entry, find an example sentence that illustrates the word *strategy* in its countable [C] sense. Copy the sentence here:
_____

6. Follow the pattern in #3 or #5 to write your own (funny or serious) example sentence to help you remember this information about using the word *strategy.*
_____

Finally, the dictionary exercise can be linked to the first reading or writing assignment by asking students to pick a key word from that assignment and provide the kind of information exemplified by the previous questions.

The Journal

A lexical journal can be another way of highlighting word study in the writing class. A journal assignment can take many forms and is the ideal means by which to individualize vocabulary study and to link such study closely with the students' own writing. In the lexical journal, students can do follow-up work on lexical issues that arise in their own essays, drafts, or reading journals. Lexical journals put the burden of responsibility for choice on the students and remove teachers from the role of choosing and presenting words to the entire class except as they choose to do in response to themes of writing or reading assignments (see below). Journals can also provide students with further practice in using their learners' dictionaries and give the instructor a mechanism for dialog with the students that, if handled efficiently, is not overly time consuming.

Lexical journals can involve any kind of vocabulary study material the instructor deems useful for extending word knowledge: dictionary work, association between new and previously known words, collocational studies,

analysis of stems and affixes, semantic analysis, comparison of similar words, or even visual reinforcement (list based on Sökmen, 1998). Appendix 1 provides a sample lexical journal assignment from an advanced ESL writing class. This particular approach is focused on dictionary work and is linked to the students' own writing. To summarize the salient points of the assignment:

Step 1: Identifying Words

Students are asked to work on words that are "starred" or otherwise marked in any of their returned writing including essays, early drafts of essays, or reading journals. Such marking takes no longer than marking the word with an abbreviation such as *ww* or *wc*. A slightly more complicated method is setting up pairs of words for students to compare in their journals. Pairing can be done by placing a star by the wrong word (e.g., *grow up*) and suggesting a more appropriate word choice in the margin ("Compare: *grow up, raise*"). This marking method takes no longer than writing a vocabulary correction or suggestion over the students' errors but gives students work to do in the journal, as opposed to giving a correction which they may never think about actively. Nevertheless, students perceive the comparison of seemingly "close" words and of words easily confused as valuable (see section below on evaluation). Examples of commonly confused pairs of words taken from student work include *accused of* instead of *mistaken for*, *against* (used as a verb) instead of *oppose*, and *happy* instead of *pleasant*.

Once students begin receiving written work back from the instructor, they usually have more than enough words for their journal assignments and, in fact, can make choices that are more appropriate. Students who do not make vocabulary or usage errors may need an alternative assignment.

Step 2: Looking up the Words in a Learners' Dictionary

Students using a standard college dictionary generally will not be able to do the assignment correctly due to the lack of example sentences in such dictionaries. In looking up their words, students should be directed to choose the meaning (through the definition) that corresponds to the meaning they intended when writing. This step may be quite challenging to them.

Step 3: Recording Information

Students record certain information about the pair of words in their journals. Writing the definition may or may not be useful. Perceived useful-

ness seems to vary from student to student. If students are comparing pairs of words, definitions do play a more useful role than when they are working on a single word. In addition, it is very valuable for writing students to record both grammatical information about the way the word functions in sentences and information related to frequency and register. Copying an example sentence from the learners' dictionary should also be required, but a link needs to be made between the sentence copied and the grammatical or stylistic information recorded. For example, the student could label or circle important structural elements in the example sentence. This is a crucial point and may mark the difference between a student who does the assignment mechanically and a student who uses the assignment as a real opportunity for learning.

Finally, the standard practice of having students create their own example sentence deserves several comments. Using the dictionary's example sentence as a pattern is one practice that may minimize the creation of bizarre sentences through mechanical substitution (where, for example, *lurk=hide*, thus "The dog *lurked* the bone in the garden"). Linking the student's example sentence to the original error may also be an effective way of showing the student the relevance of the exercise. Either way, further instructor feedback and further correction are often needed on student-generated sentences.

Finally, it is important to invite students to write questions they may still have about the word and any aspect of its use. Often students who seldom speak in class will ask penetrating questions regarding words that they are wondering about in their journals.

Step 4: Dialog

Instructor feedback to journal entries is needed in a few areas. Clearly, teachers will want to answer, whether in writing or during a conference, any questions that students raise in the journal. It is also important to respond in cases in which the student has chosen a different meaning of the word than the one called for in the original context; in such cases, the student may be required to do a new journal entry. Teachers may also wish to comment on or to ask for corrections to mixed parts of speech or usage errors in student-generated sentences. This way, a dialog can be set up between the student and the teacher as the journal is returned and resubmitted. If the journal is set up as in Appendix 1, the instructor can use the right-hand column as space for these and other comments. Comments can vary in length and directiveness; for instance, the instructor could write a simple "try again" message in response to an incorrect sentence or could start the student off on a correct pattern by providing a sentence beginning. In any case, the teacher should be careful

not to take too much responsibility in the lexical journal dialog. Sending the student back to a dictionary or making the student think more about a word can foster independent learning habits, which may result in the student learning more (Schmitt & Schmitt, 1995).

Reading and responding to journal entries can be done quickly; however instructors of large classes may not be able to give timely or extended feedback. In such cases, instructors may choose to check for accuracy in a more general manner or may be able to save time by giving uniform journal assignments to the whole class. Follow-up discussion time will be needed in class.

Experience using lexical journals has shown that the scope of what students actually do in their journals varies greatly with student motivation. The number of items in a student's journal may also depend on how many items the instructor has found and starred in the student's writing. An ambitious journal entry might be typified by the following: In one assignment a student looked at the words *danger, (be) in danger,* and *dangerous.* She then figured out through her study of these words why it was incorrect for her to write, as she had originally written, "I feel *dangerous.*" Next she compared *against* (which she had used as a verb) with the more appropriate verb *resist.* She also wrote a report about the lexical item *expose,* and compared the two words *property* and *possessions.* This student not only copied definitions out of the dictionary but also tried to explain the differences between these items in her own words. She was then able to write appropriate sentences of her own based on the sample sentences in her learners' dictionary.

Lexical Focus in Reading/Writing Assignments

As a writing class settles into the usual rhythm of discussing readings, pre-writing, drafting, response, revision, and editing, the lexical focus can easily slip into the background or become "relegated" to the lexical journal. However, in order for students to see the close connections between lexicon and accurate and effective writing, additional efforts must be made to foreground the lexical approach in each assignment.

In the section that follows, the assumption is that much or most university-level writing is done in response to some text; hence, reading is seen as part of the writing process. In general, experienced instructors will know that each reading and writing assignment revolves around a certain essential core of vocabulary. Training students to identify that core of vocabulary and to seek out further information about it will not only increase their knowledge of lexis but will also give them an opportunity to use this core vocabulary effectively in their essays. The lexical focus can be called forth at almost every step in the reading/writing process, as illustrated below.

Pre-reading

Lexical items from a title may be addressed in class (e.g., *Tracking*, the title of an excerpt from Mike Rose's 1996 *Lives on the Boundary)* or assigned as a word study in the vocabulary journal (e.g., *Wilderness* from the title of a 1995 Ken Chowder passage on use versus conservation of resources). Pre-reading discussion or assignments may provide the first opportunity for students to think about the core vocabulary, its usage, and its related forms. Any lexical item that will be important in the reading passage may also be defined and/or discussed as part of schema building before students read the assignment.

Reading and Annotating

Students may be encouraged to mark unknown vocabulary quickly while reading and to prioritize and look up vocabulary later. As a part of annotating a reading passage, students may be asked to make a note in the margin of key words that they predict will be useful in writing about the passage. Such key words are usually different from those words glossed for reading comprehension.[5] (See also the section below on student strategy training.)

Discussions and Discussion Guides

A good lead-off question for small group discussion of a reading can be a question about important vocabulary, particularly if it involves discussing distinctions between concepts that are important in the passage. For example, after students read an article about the theory of multiple intelligences (e.g., Goleman, Kaufmann, & Ray, 1995), small groups might be asked to discuss similarities and differences between words such as *intelligence, talent, creativity, ability,* and *knowledge.* The instructor may bring a learners' dictionary to class or ask for volunteers to do so. This activity amounts to an exploration of a semantic field. During class discussions, unexpected opportunities for impromptu vocabulary mini-lessons often arise as mistakes in usage of important vocabulary occur. Experienced instructors will be able to decide when a comment on vocabulary will help prepare students for writing without unduly interrupting the flow of discussion.

Pre-writing

If the students' free writing or reading journals are turned in, it may be appropriate and useful to mark lexical gaps or confusions in these pre-writing explorations. Such feedback may be particularly important when students are preparing for an in-class writing. This process is much different,

of course, from "correcting" journals. On the other hand, if students engage in clustering or other brainstorming exercises, more abstract vocabulary may be needed for labeling or giving a title to lists or clusters and moving from there into topic sentences.

Feedback on Early Drafts

It has been shown that writing teachers make fewer comments, positive or negative, on lexical choices than on grammatical choices in journals, drafts, or essays (Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990). In drafts, it is helpful to: (a) praise students for good word choice decisions and/or for skillful or effective use of vocabulary in the draft ("Good word!" "Well stated!" or a smiley face), (b) mark problem vocabulary for individual students to look up and report on in their lexical journals, (c) suggest a range of words that could help students to develop their discussion or discuss it in a more academic style, and (d) follow up in class on vocabulary that was problematic for many or most students, again expanding choices.[6]

Paper Conferences

Suggestions (a) through (d) above applied to feedback on drafts may also be carried out in individual writing conferences. In suggesting a range of words, it is helpful to have students write the word themselves for practice and awareness of spelling. Prepositions should be provided along with the verbs.

Final Papers or Portfolios

Instructors or programs should be sure that word choice is addressed in the grading rubric. Positive descriptors might read, for instance, "accurate and varied word choice" for an "A" paper and "clear but sometimes non-idiomatic word choice" for a "B" paper. Descriptors corresponding to lower grades might include "frequently inaccurate and unclear word choice" or "limited vocabulary." If vocabulary is emphasized in a writing class, it is logical for students to expect that end comments and marginal comments will include references to use of vocabulary in the paper.

Student Strategy Training

In order to teach students independence and intentionality in researching vocabulary for writing, instructors can expand upon the approach mentioned above in the section on reading and annotating. Experienced ESL writing teachers developing a reading/writing assignment will almost certainly be able to predict from the reading passage some of the key words that

are essential for writing the assignment. However, it is not always as certain that students themselves will be able to identify such key vocabulary; nor is it clear that they can systematically ask the questions needed for learning enough about the meaning, usage, and syntactic behavior of the words to use them accurately and effectively in their essays. Thus, rather than the teacher pointing out vocabulary to the students, it is useful to carry out training in the identification and research of key words in the ESL writing class.[7]

The goal of such training is that students will be able to identify fields and families of vocabulary and use such fields and families to explore ideas for writing. Student training should begin during discussion of the first reading/writing assignment. The instructor models the choice of two or three key words and their word "families." For instance, *advertise*, *advertising* (uncountable) and *advertisement* (in the concrete, countable sense) could constitute one such "family" drawn from a reading by Jeffrey Schrank called *Psychosell* (1996). Here, both *product* and *need* in all of their related forms might be semantically related words to discuss. (Note: these are not words that the students would normally need to look up because they are considered already "known" to most students.) Through class discussion and examination of dictionary entries and sample sentences, students explore the conceptual differences between these related words as well as the syntactic behavior of each and apply what they learn when writing their essays.

On the next reading/writing assignment, more responsibility is given to the students, who are asked as part of their reading and annotation assignment to identify and bring to class three to five words from the reading that they feel will be important to their writing of the next assignment. On their first independent try, students will typically pick out words they do not know; these words, though interesting, are unlikely to be useful in, let alone essential to writing their essay. This can be brought out in class discussion. The instructor can then model the more basic key words and show their importance and the pitfalls in their usage. On subsequent reading/writing assignments, students may improve in their ability to identify and to ask relevant questions regarding key vocabulary.

This technique can contribute to better student writing in several ways. One benefit of this approach, particularly if the instructor is able to make useful links from the vocabulary to the discussion of concepts, is that the students will see that word study can help them to brainstorm ideas for writing. In the example above, discussion of the words *advertisement* and *advertising* can help students move from the concrete advertisement—what they see or hear—to consideration of the more abstract concepts of advertising, such as its philosophy of psychological manipulation. A second benefit of this approach is that the key vocabulary will be reinforced and usage

will be studied in depth so that differences in countability, number, and use of determiners with the two nouns will be illustrated. The class can then examine the use of the word *advertising* in noun compounds such as *advertising philosophy* or *advertising campaign.* Finally, strategy training in the identification of key words will assist students in future reading and writing assignments, both in the ESL writing class and beyond.

Points of Connection between Grammar and Vocabulary

Turning finally to sentence level instruction, insofar as grammar is explicitly taught in the writing classroom, a vocabulary focus can be important in helping students to understand the complexity of some grammatical points. These are areas where lexical considerations intersect with grammar in determining correct form or usage, i.e., areas that students may find very unpredictable as a result of this intersection. Some of the major grammatical areas that have such a lexical connection are: verb complementation and sentence structure after specific verbs, choice of prepositions, number and choice of articles and other determiners, passive voice, and word form. When dealing with errors in these areas of grammar, ESL writing students often find it reassuring to hear that there is usually no simple grammar "rule" that they have broken; rather, they are working in the relatively arbitrary realm of the lexicon.

As Hunston, Francis & Manning (1997) have stated, grammar and vocabulary are often seen as discrete areas of language learning, whereas in fact they interact in many places. These authors refer to the "grammar of individual words" (especially verbs) in discussing the area of verb complementation and preposition choice (p. 208). They argue that far more details of complementation than just the governance of infinitive or gerund can be taught as "patterns" and that the patterns are related to meanings. They further claim that teaching semantically based patterns will encourage better understanding and greater "accuracy and fluency" than the traditional memorization of lists. Basing their examples on their research of the *COBUILD* corpus, they illustrate several verb patterns (specifically "V by _____ING" and "V at n") and the meanings associated with them.[8] While admitting that the approach may seem to add complexity at first, the authors maintain that seeing the patterns themselves as adding meaning and treating them as "building blocks" of sentences can be very beneficial to students.

The important point here is not whether the syllabus of a writing class has space for teaching the numerous patterns suggested by Hunston et al. (1997), but rather that students should learn the principle: *Knowing verb complementation or verb-preposition patterns or even allowable structures after certain verbs is part of knowing the verb itself, and this kind of information can-*

not be learned by reference to a simple rule. Students should know (and the teacher should inform them) that the correct verb complement, preposition, or allowable sentence structure can be found in a learners' dictionary if one learns to read the grammar codes or uses the sample sentences as a source of grammatical information. In fact, one of the most reliable uses of a learners' dictionary is for finding correct prepositions, which are often indicated in bold face and appear in sample sentences (Christianson, 1997). Personal experience suggests that it may also be necessary to remind students that after a preposition error is made in writing, the correct move is not to look up the preposition itself but the word associated with it, usually the preceding but occasionally the following word. For example, students should look up *reason* to correct the preposition error in "the reason *of* _____" as well as the error in "*by* this reason."

Grammar lessons on article and number also certainly will include reference to lexical issues. Countability, for example, is word based; students cannot learn a simple grammatical rule for which nouns are countable and which are not (though knowing some general categories is useful). Thus, the correct use of articles and number will depend on a combination of word-governed and rule-governed principles since countability will determine whether a noun can be pluralized and which determiners can be used with it. Furthermore, students need to know that a large number of the nouns they need for academic writing are listed in dictionaries as both countable and uncountable, depending in part upon whether they are used in a concrete or an abstract sense (e.g., *competition* in university classes versus *a gymnastics competition* held at a specific time and place). Extensive contextualized practice and opportunities to ask questions about articles as used in the writing of native speaker authors are needed in order for students to begin to ask the right questions, let alone make the correct choices. However, an understanding of the lexical complexity involved seems to comfort students and helps them cope with and understand the notion that an absolutely right or wrong answer may not always exist.

It is perhaps somewhat less obvious that lexical issues enter into instruction in both active and passive voice. Typically, our initial teaching is based on simple examples in which the agent and object are clearly differentiated; this occurs because the concept that the verb represents is very concrete and the verb is of high frequency. So it is easy to believe that the grammatical principle is clear when students can correctly generate "The ball was thrown at a speed of 96 miles per hour" as well as "The pitcher threw a rising fast ball." However, when students write that they "were grown up in a rural area of mainland China," marking the error as "passive" may not be helpful. What is at issue in this case is a lexical difference between *grow up* and *raise*—and, to

complicate the picture even further, *grow*. The more abstract the concept, the less fair it is to the students simply to expect them to learn that a sentence should be expressed through a passive voice verb. Try, for example, to think through the difference between (active voice) *consists of* and (passive voice) *is made up of*. Again, judicious use of example sentences and guidance in looking up and understanding troublesome distinctions should be part of writing instruction. (See Appendix 2 for a worksheet on active and passive voice.)

Finally, word form or part of speech is an important area in which vocabulary plays a critical role. In this case, students can learn affixes that typically occur in various parts of speech; they can also learn the rules for identifying nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs in sentences. However, further word study is still required for students to understand word form errors such as "He will success in school" since they often cannot distinguish noun from verb forms (in this case *success* from *succeed)*. Individualized work on such troublesome word families can be assigned for students' lexical journals.

Not only students but also tutors and instructors can be helped by recognizing ways in which grammar and vocabulary interact. Ultimately, the foregoing are all areas in which errors are difficult to explain. Whereas rule-governed areas such as tense and formation of the finite verb should never be considered random, lexically based restrictions can, in a way, be seen as more arbitrary. Students still may wish to ask why a noun such as *information* is uncountable or why we say *as a result* rather than *as the result*. We can legitimately dodge this question and instead urge students to learn the pattern or the "chunk" of language that it represents and also to find strategies for learning such chunks most effectively.

Evaluation

To evaluate the suggestions put forward in this article, five criteria for an approach to vocabulary teaching based on the research suggested by Oxford & Scarcella (1994) are helpful.

1. Is the approach based on what the students need to know?

The intent of all the suggestions mentioned here is to find what is relevant to improving student writing. As such, the approach seems by definition to address what ESL writing students need to know. The lexical journal, in particular, focuses on words that students have attempted to use in their writing but have used incorrectly, thus most clearly fulfilling this first criterion of need. It should be clear, though, that the guiding philosophy throughout the article has been that students need, in general, to know more about words they may already "know" at some level but do not know well enough to use effectively in their writing.

2. Is the approach tailored to individual learning styles and needs?

Insofar as vocabulary learning is approached in this article from many different angles, this criterion may indeed be fulfilled. A great deal of variety and latitude is implied in the discussion above of the many ways vocabulary can be foregrounded within the writing process. Within this approach, in-class discussions, group work, and illustrations can help the aural or visual learner to pick up information, as can multimedia practice materials in a language lab setting.

Certainly using the dictionary, as in the lexical journal assignment, does not fit every student's learning style. Perhaps some students could be given latitude to use native speaker informants to acquire a bank of sample sentences for this assignment. It is worth noting, however, that (based on my own teaching experience), the rather traditional lexical journal assignment has been shown to give a voice to several ESL students with special needs who never or seldom asked questions in class, including several students with impaired hearing and markedly unclear speech.

3. Is the practice of vocabulary contextualized?

Grounding vocabulary work in the students' own writing about the texts they are reading provides perhaps one of the richest possible contexts for word learning. Teaching strategies for identifying key vocabulary from a reading is another important use of context. Even in the less contextualized lexical journals, the emphasis on using example sentences from the learners' dictionary as patterns plus the requirement that students attempt to return to the context in which they first made the vocabulary error are two more ways in which practice is contextualized.

4. Does the approach teach students how to improve on their own?

Although the instructor initially plays a very important role in these vocabulary activities, the hoped-for outcome is that students will do the main work of studying the words that are identified for them and will learn to use the tools for independent word study as well as acquire the motivation and the habit. Instruction in how to make use of a learners' dictionary and knowledge of the pitfalls inherent in even the best of dictionaries should be useful.

5. Does the approach emphasize strategies for learning vocabulary?

If adjunct classes or workshops are available to writing classes, it would be very helpful to use some part of Schmitt's (1998) list of 58 vocabulary learning strategies so that students can explore new personal strategies and identify the ones that are most useful to them. If no such adjunct work is

possible, the writing teacher might consider a reading/writing topic focused on strategies. Excerpts and examples from Rebecca Oxford's (1990) book can be used and discussed as background to a writing assignment about effective or ineffective learning strategies. Meanwhile, improved strategies for using a monolingual learners' dictionary should also be an outcome of the lexical focus, and students should come to learn when dictionary use is likely to be a good strategy rather than a waste of time.

Student reaction to a lexical focus in the writing class has been generally positive, as shown in written evaluations and surveys. For example, although some students, particularly those at the lower level, claimed to prefer the use of teacher-generated vocabulary lists (and a quiz every Friday!), most students could see that context and an individualized approach were extremely important. At the upper level, students clearly liked having a choice and felt the lexical journal assignments were connected to their writing. Several mentioned that the assignment motivated them to do something about learning vocabulary although they still were not doing enough. Many mentioned the comparison of "nearly identical" words as a feature they liked. Though some students admitted they still were not learning in depth, they said they were retaining more, checking their journals when writing, and learning by using words in sentences.

Finally, the important point is increasing students' understanding of the nature of vocabulary learning and awakening their interest in learning more about words. Without student effort, a lexical focus will not have any magical result. However, many language acquirers, including those who have spent many years in the United States, are very receptive to the idea of finally doing something to address their perceived (and real) vocabulary deficits in a way that can translate into better writing.

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Endnotes

[1] "Acoustic approximations" include, for example, writing *firstable* instead of *first of all.* Scarcella also mentions that L2 high school students preparing themselves for the SAT examination study vocabulary but often misuse or overuse "SAT vocabulary" in subsequent writing.

[2] Lane and Lange's *Writing Clearly* (1999) is an example of one of the most widely used of such texts. These authors recognize that word choice can be a global or disruptive error in many cases, though generally it is treated as a local error in their book.

[3] Personal experience suggests that, in an attempt not to be repetitious, many students now use a thesaurus available through popular word processing programs.

[4] *Collins COBUILD English Learner's Dictionary* (1989), *Longman Dictionary of American English* (1997), and *Oxford American Word Power Dictionary* (1998) are some of the most widely used "large" learners' dictionaries, with *The American Heritage English as a Second Language Dictionary* (1998), *Longman's Handy Learner's Dictionary* (1993), and *The Basic Newbury House Dictionary* (1998) now offering "thinner" American English learners' dictionaries. See Scholfield (1998) for a list of on-line resources as well as a discussion of the value for writing students of bilingual dictionaries and of thesaurus-like tools such as the *Longman Language Activator* (1993).

[5] Students and instructors alike can be misled by vocabulary glossed or presented in the introduction to each passage. These words seldom represent the core vocabulary needed for writing; rather (and importantly), these words or references are deemed difficult for students yet important for their comprehension of the passage. Examples from one passage on the work ethic of immigrants included *pantheon* and *Taoist*. Important as such words may be for background and/or full reading comprehension, they are not the core words students will use or misuse in writing their essays.

[6] Since wrong word choices can make a message unclear, vocabulary can be seen as an issue of content and not just a sentence level problem. Thus, in programs where response to content (e.g., in a first draft) is separated from response to language/grammar (in a later draft), vocabulary might potentially be addressed in both the first and the later draft.

[7] The following approach was developed by former UC Davis ESL lecturer and colleague Emily Blair (Lowry & Blair, 1996).

[8] The "V by _____ING" pattern includes verbs with the general meaning of starting or finishing, such as *begin by, start off by, close by, finish up by.* The "V at n" pattern includes over 200 verbs falling into ten meaning groups, e.g., making a noise to communicate *(growl at, laugh at, swear at, yell at)* and communicating by facial expression *(frown at, grimace at, leer at, scowl at).*

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Appendix 1
Lexical Journal Assignment

VOCABULARY JOURNALS: This assignment is an attempt to:

1. improve the scope and accuracy of word choice in your writing, and
2. encourage you to explore your (dictionary name) as a tool to use independently in the future.

Look though the *journals, essay drafts, and graded papers* that you have received back from me so far. There you will find specially marked items [*], which are words that I think you should study in order to learn more about them. Follow the steps below.

Step 1 *Find the words marked with a star [*] and choose the ones you want to work on.* These are "your" words, taken from your writing; sometimes I will suggest one of "my" words, i.e., a better choice for academic writing or simply a more accurate choice for your sentence. In such cases, you will *compare* the pair of words in your journal.

Step 2 Find your words in (dictionary name). Read the dictionary entry and be sure you understand it. If several meanings are listed, *choose the meaning of the word that corresponds to the meaning you intended when you were writing.*

Step 3 In your bluebook, draw a vertical line on your page slightly to the right of middle. Write in your journal *on the left hand side of the line.* I will respond on the right. Include the following:

a) a definition (optional). Writing the definition is particularly useful if you are comparing two words that you have confused or that are close in meaning. If your error was completely unrelated to the word's meaning you may omit this step. DO make a note of register (e.g., informal). or special usage.

b) any grammatical information the dictionary gives you, e.g., Is a noun *countable* or *uncountable?* Is a verb *transitive* or *intransitive?* Is there a *preposition* commonly associated with the word, and if so, which one? Look up abbreviations you do not understand. Ask me if you have problems.

c) one or more example sentence(s) from the dictionary. Choose the one that seems most useful, but be sure it matches the meaning you wanted in your original use of the word. *Label* the parts of the sentence as practiced in class.

d) your own sentence. Follow patterns from the example sentences! Try to write a sentence similar in meaning to the one in which you first wrote the word, i.e., in your journal or essay.

e) any questions you may have about the definition or the use of this word.

Step 4 Look at previous journals to see if I have marked any sentences "*Try again:* _____." This means you made an error that you need to address. Rewrite and correct the error to receive full points.

Step 5 Write the date at the top of your journal page *and* list in alphabetical order all the words you have included in this particular assignment.

Appendix 2
Active and Passive Voice: A Vocabulary Emphasis

Note: This exercise assumes that forms of the passive have been learned and examples practiced.

WARM-UP

Rewrite the sentence using the passive voice. Think about whether passive voice might be preferable to the active for any reason.

Active: *Tony caught the ball.* → Passive:

_____

Active: *Someone has fired me!* → Passive:

_____

Active: *You must do it by tomorrow.* → Passive:

_____

Why can't this sentence be put into the passive?

It rained a little yesterday.

WRITING

How should I choose whether to use active or passive voice in my sentence?

Grammar

Make sure that the verb can be used in the passive (i.e., is it transitive, can it have a direct object?). Look in your dictionary if you are not sure. Some transitive verbs are marked "no passive."

Examples:	*raise*	*resemble*	*reflect (meaning 2)*
	rise	*result*	

Meaning:

In your dictionary, if you are in any doubt, you should:

a. Check the definition of the verb *and* the example sentences in the active voice.

b. Notice what kinds of words are the subject and object of the verb.

c. Check whether any of the example sentences illustrate passive voice. This might be an indication that this particular verb occurs commonly in the passive. Compare meanings to the idea you are trying to express.

Example #1:

approve (of) - to have a favorable opinion *or* to agree to officially
She doesn't approve of her daughter's boyfriend.
Do you think the President will ever approve our plan?
My plan for a summer internship hasn't been approved yet.

Active or passive?
In the last election the voters _____ a new plan for raising money for medical research.

Example #2

produce - (look at example sentences in your dictionary)

Active or passive?

In good working conditions, new and creative ideas _____ *and that will benefit the company in the long run.*

Example #3

locate - (look at example sentences in your dictionary)

Active or passive?

Do you know where the copy shop _____*?*

Abstract vocabulary

Abstract vocabulary is more difficult; look up some of the following verbs, and write sentences in the active voice and the passive voice based on example sentences in the dictionary:

base (on/upon) *consider* *establish* *include* *influence* *involve*

The CATESOL Journal

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Interlanguage Pragmatics: What Can it Offer to Language Teachers?

■ **Although the necessity and importance of teaching pragmatics have been recognized, language teachers may hesitate to teach pragmatics in their classrooms for two reasons. First, teaching pragmatics is a difficult and sensitive issue due to the high degree of "face threat" it often involves and, second, the number of available pedagogical resources is limited. In this critical review of empirical studies in interlanguage pragmatics (ILP), the author argues that ILP research is a useful source of information for language teachers to make informed decisions about teaching pragmatics. First, she discusses the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 speakers' pragmatics and explanations for such differences. Secondly, she considers how L2 learners develop pragmatic competence, both in and outside classrooms. Finally, she examines the issues of teachability and the teaching of pragmatics in language classrooms.**

ESL classrooms are full of intercultural interactions, which are often accompanied by surprises. For example, you may have Japanese students who are "apologetic"—when you help them during the office hours or write a letter of recommendation for them, they apologize by saying "I'm sorry" rather than thanking you for help. At the same time, you may be shocked to see how direct these students can be when they disagree with their classmates. While Americans may mitigate their disagreements by starting with such compliments as "I think that's a very interesting idea, but...," these Japanese students seem to have no problem explicitly stating "I disagree with you." Socially, they may be regarded as too apologetic or impolite; linguistically, they lack pragmatic competence.[1]

Pragmatic failure, the communication breakdown caused by lack of pragmatic competence, can interfere with social, academic, and professional opportunities for L2 speakers (Tanaka, 1997). Native speakers tend, in fact, to be less tolerant of pragmatic failure than of grammatical errors (Ervin-Tripp, 1972; Wolfson, 1983). In extreme cases, individuals (whether L1 or L2 speakers) may experience difficulty in establishing social relationships with members of the community and may even be denied valuable academic and professional opportunities. These potentially devastating consequences of the lack of pragmatic competence argue strongly for the teaching of pragmatics.

A language teacher may hesitate to teach pragmatics, however, because to do so can be a difficult and sensitive endeavor. The use of language in social contexts involves a speaker's world knowledge, which is filtered by his or her value system (Thomas, 1983). This may make the correction of pragmatic errors (e.g., "It is not appropriate to ask such a question at a party") much more face-threatening than, say, the correction of pronunciation errors (e.g., "It's *thórough*, not *thoróugh*").

The study of interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) is one field of inquiry that can help language teachers make informed decisions about teaching pragmatics in their classrooms. ILP, the study of how second language speakers[2] use language, started in the late 70s. These cross-linguistic comparative studies were pedagogically motivated and sought to discover why linguistically competent students still lacked pragmatic competency. Attention to this topic since that time has been slowly but steadily increasing. In this article, I will illustrate how language teachers can benefit by keeping up with findings in ILP.

Description of Interlanguage Pragmatics

Because many ILP studies, especially early ones, focused on the description of L2 speakers' pragmatics, a significant amount of information is available on the similarities and differences between L1 and L2 speakers' use of language. One similarity between the pragmatics of L1 and L2 speakers is the range of semantic formulae. *Semantic formulae* are the subset of acts that speakers perform within a given speech act. For example, an apology could be broken down to the head act of the actual apology (e.g., "I'm sorry for being late") and adjunct acts such as giving an excuse or promising to compensate (e.g., "I couldn't find my keys. It won't happen again. I'll stay after to finish up"). Studies indicate that L2 speakers use semantic formulae in both similar and different ways compared to L1 speakers.

In their studies on disagreement and on disseminating embarrassing information, Beebe and Takahashi (1989a, 1989b) found that both native

speakers[3] of American English and Japanese ESL speakers used the following five semantic formulae in disagreement:

1. Criticism (e.g., "I don't think this works")
2. Suggestion (e.g., "Let's set time aside to go though this")
3. Positive remark (e.g., "This is interesting")
4. Gratitude (e.g., "Thank you for your effort to streamline things")
5. Token agreement (e.g., "Don't you think this is great?" "Yes").

However, they also found that, although these two groups of speakers have access to the same inventory of semantic formulae for disagreement, their selections are quite different. When asked what they would say in the following scenario, the two groups demonstrated different patterns.

> You are a corporate executive. Your assistant submits a proposal for reassignment of secretarial duties in your division. Your assistant describes the benefits of this new plan, but you believe it will not work. (1989a, p. 109)

While 87% of the Americans used positive remarks, no Japanese used this formula. Criticism, on the other hand, was used by 87% of the Japanese, sometimes very explicitly (e.g., "I don't agree with you. I don't think your plan will work well"). Conversely, only 50% of the Americans used such explicit formulation and none of them used the word *disagree.*

These studies suggest that L1 and L2 speakers have access to the same range of semantic formulae but differ in their utilization. The way L2 speakers deviate is not always predictable because it is influenced by multiple factors such as the complexity of speech acts, a speaker's familiarity with the situation (Eisenstein & Bodman, 1993), a speaker's language proficiency level, the distance between a speaker's L1 and L2, and the degree of cultural disorientation. However, the differences in the use of semantic formulae can be assumed to come from the planning and selecting process rather than from having a different inventory.

Explanation of Interlanguage Pragmatics

As more studies revealed differences between L1 and L2 pragmatic performance, researchers started to investigate the origins of those differences.[4]

Pragmatic Transfer

One possible cause for L2 speakers' pragmatic differences is *pragmatic transfer.* Pragmatic transfer is "the influence exerted by learners' pragmatic

knowledge of language and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production and learning of L2 pragmatic information" (Kasper, 1992, p. 207). This type of transfer occurs at several levels.

Pragmatic transfer occurs at the formal level, including the selection of lexicon, modality, and syntactic styles. For example, Japanese speakers of English may say "I'm sorry" when native English speakers would say "Thank you" or "I appreciate your help" to express gratitude. This occurs because Japanese use the expression *sumimasen* (which is equivalent to "I'm sorry" in English) when they thank people in certain contexts. The utterance "I'm sorry" seems to be the result of literal translation and therefore to represent L1 transfer at the formal level (Eisenstein & Bodman, 1993; House, 1989).

Another level where pragmatic transfer occurs is the selection of semantic formulae and strategies. Takahashi and Beebe (1987, 1993) compared the semantic formulae used by three groups of speakers: native English speakers (NES), Japanese ESL/EFL speakers, and Japanese speakers speaking in Japanese. When the frequency of each formula was compared, use by Japanese speakers of English always measured between that of the other two groups. For example, in a correction situation, positive remarks were used much more often by NES than by Japanese speakers. When the three groups (NES, Japanese speaking in English and Japanese speaking in Japanese) were compared, the percentage of utterances that included positive remarks produced by each group were 79%, 23% and 13% respectively, suggesting that the way Japanese speakers select formulae in English may be influenced by what they would select in Japanese.[5]

In addition, L1 transfer takes place at the level of the speaker's perception of contextual factors that influence the planning of utterances. While certain contextual factors, such as relative power status (social "distance" between the interlocutors) and the perceived degree of imposition of a speech act (e.g., how demanding a request is), seem to influence the selection of politeness strategies universally (Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Eisenstein & Bodman, 1993; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987, 1993; Tyler, 1995; Weizman, 1993; Zuengler, 1993), the most influential contextual factors and the degree to which they are influential differ from one culture to another.

Lipson (1994) conducted a study in which Italian learners of English translated American sitcom episodes into Italian and edited the script to make it more appropriate in Italian culture. When the two were compared, several situations that originally contained an act of apology no longer had one in Italian, suggesting that the obligation for apology differed in the two cultures. As Beebe and Takahashi (1989a) state:

> The picture becomes clearer when we realize that the situations in which both Japanese and Americans choose to be direct or indirect depend to a great extent on the relative social status of the interlocutors. Japanese, however, attend to factors that Americans do not hold to be particularly important. And Americans simply are not sensitized to all of these social nuances that, for Japanese, are involved in the decision to speak directly or indirectly. (p. 104)

In other words, understanding the differences in "social nuances" facilitates the better understanding of ILP. Teachers who understand these differences can address students' needs more effectively.

Learning Effect

In addition to pragmatic transfer, *learning effects* may cause a deviation of L2 speakers' pragmatics from the L1 norm. Such learning effects may be of a formal nature (i.e., the result of classroom instruction) or of an informal nature (i.e., perceptions formed outside of a classroom setting).

An example of an informal learning effect is L2 speakers' perceptions of the target language and culture developed from their past experience. A Japanese learner of English may underuse "softeners" because of a common stereotype held by Japanese that Americans are direct and do not require mitigation (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989a). Similarly, Olshtain (1983) found that American students of Hebrew, who perceived Hebrew speakers to require less apology, actually apologized much less than Russian students, who felt Hebrew culture required more apologies than Russian.

Other types of learning effects include overgeneralization, hypercorrection, or simply a response to having been taught something that does not reflect reality. In a study by Kitao (1990), Japanese EFL students rated the expression "Will you...?" to be much more polite than NES did, and they also used the expression more often than NES did. Kitao concluded that this was "probably because they were taught in their English classes that this form was polite" (p. 197). This study suggests that speakers' perceptions about the target culture and language, both general and specific, influence these speakers' pragmatic patterns.

However, deviation from the L1 pragmatic pattern is not necessarily a problem (Kasper, 1992; White, 1989). Some deviations do not cause pragmatic failure, and some even bring positive outcomes. Yet, investigation of the cause and patterns of L2 speakers' pragmatic deviation is useful and necessary because identifying where differences come from helps language teachers understand how students develop pragmatic competence.

Development of Interlanguage Pragmatics

At this point, few empirical studies are available, especially longitudinal ones, on the acquisition of pragmatics. Studies focusing on very beginning students are especially scarce because of difficulty in collecting data. However, available studies do provide some insights into how language learners develop pragmatic competence.

Developmental Patterns

ILP studies suggest that L2 learners go through the following three stages as they learn to perform a speech act successfully: (1) they learn to identify the speech act that is called for in a particular situation; (2) they learn to perform the speech act with or without an appropriate expression (e.g., the speaker performs the intended act, although he or she may unintentionally offend their interlocutor); and (3) they learn to select an expression appropriate to the speech act.

The studies also suggest that the third stage develops last because the ability to select an appropriate expression takes more time to develop than do the preceding two abilities.

Ellis (1992) conducted a longitudinal study of two beginning ESL children and found that these children failed to develop pragmatic competence even after they had made considerable development in making requests. He concluded that in children's acquisition of the speech act of "making a request," *discrimination of social appropriateness* is acquired much later than is the rote learning of formulaic expressions of request.

Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993) also conducted a longitudinal study in which they investigated how graduate students learn to make suggestions and rejections in academic advising sessions. Their findings suggested that L2 speakers changed over time toward L1 norms in their selection of speech acts (i.e., including more suggestions and fewer rejections) and as a result became more successful negotiators; however, their ability to employ the appropriate forms of speech acts did not improve significantly.

Although the developmental patterns for other speech acts as well as for overall pragmatic competence are still to be investigated, these and other developmental studies (e.g., Weizman, 1993) suggest that some aspects of pragmatic competence develop from exposure to an L2 speaking environment while other aspects do not. Appropriateness seems to be one aspect that is particularly difficult to acquire. More studies, especially longitudinal ones, may help us understand how long it takes to develop pragmatic competence, which areas seem to be difficult to acquire, and what can be done to help L2 speakers overcome these difficulties.

Input and Feedback

Both Ellis (1992) and Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993) mention limited input and feedback as possible reasons for unsuccessful pragmatic development. Studies on the quality and amount of input (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1996; Kasper, 1988) seem to support these speculations. Kasper (1988) conducted a role-play based study in which NES and German speakers of English participated. The researcher examined the impact of textbooks and classroom specific discourse on the learners' interlanguage discourse. She found that L2 speakers' utterances included such characteristics as rising intonation with a non-interrogative function, inappropriate explicitness in speech acts, complete-sentence responses, and a lack of speech act modality (e.g., the use of tag questions for intensifying or downtoning the directness of an utterance)—all of which could be traced to classroom specific discourse. She further claims that inappropriate and limited input in foreign language classrooms could be an additional possible factor in approximately one third of the pragmatic errors observed among EFL learners.

Likewise, Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1996), in their analysis of 94 advising sessions of NES and ESL graduate students, found that advisors explicitly and implicitly taught students that suggestions from students are expected. Further, they indicated what acceptable suggestions are (e.g., which classes students can register for), and taught that making a counter-suggestion is more appropriate than rejecting an advisor's suggestion. However, almost no feedback was given on the form such suggestions should take.

The researchers also found that no input was available for students to model because academic advising is private, depriving ESL students of opportunities to adopt and adapt the ways that NES students talk. Finally, Bardovi-Harligand Hartford. observed status differences between advisors and students, noting that one possible pragmatic implication of this meant students might find it presumptuous to adopt forms used by their advisors. This seems to explain why students in the 1993 study improved in their selection of speech acts but not in their selection of appropriate forms (see also Bouton, 1992; and Omar, 1992).

Although none of these claims support a direct causal relationship between the kind and amount of input available and students' pragmatic errors, they suggest that the amount of input influences ILP development and that the exposure to the L2 environment facilitates the development of some aspects of ILP.

Teaching of Interlanguage Pragmatics

The study of the pedagogy of pragmatics is a more recent phenomenon than the study of other aspects of ILP. However, increasingly the significance of the topic is being recognized, and more studies are appearing that address this issue. It is the most relevant aspect of ILP for language teachers because the findings in this area have direct implications for language teaching.

Teachability of Pragmatics

A fundamental question in teaching pragmatics is whether or not it is possible to teach pragmatics at all. The answer seems to be "yes." Studies examining the teachability of pragmatics all suggest that it can be done (Kasper, 1997); however, some aspects of pragmatics seem easier to teach than others. Conversational routines, for example, have been effectively taught in various studies.

Billmyer (1990) conducted an experimental study with 18 Japanese ESL students to examine the effectiveness of tutoring on complimenting and replying to compliments. The experimental group received 6 hours of explicit instruction on compliment rules in addition to their regular ESL instruction. After the experiment, the result of compliment-inducing tasks were analyzed in terms of frequency, level of spontaneity, appropriateness, forms and adjectival repertoire of the compliment, and type and length of reply. The findings showed that tutored L2 students were more native-like in their complimenting behavior and their replies than untutored students in terms their frequency, spontaneity, and adjective repertoire. However, they showed no significant difference from the untutored students in their appropriateness of pragmatic choice.

Another study on the effectiveness of explicit instruction involved advanced German speakers of English (House, 1996). Students received 14 weeks of implicit instruction through rich input of various speech act routines, along with opportunities to practice. In addition, the experimental group received some explicit metapragmatic information about making requests. Analyses of role-play and authentic interaction at the end of the term showed that, while both groups improved, the experimental group was better in using a variety of expressions and strategies to make requests. However, both groups lacked effectiveness in uptaking and responding to the requests of others, speech acts that are less formulaic than the simple act of making a request.

As these studies show, explicit instruction is possible and useful in helping learners acquire pragmatic competence, at least in conversational routines.[6] At the same time, most of the studies point out aspects of pragmatics

that seem more difficult to teach than others, of which appropriateness is one example.

Futhermore, teachability varies within the same pragmatic phenomenon. For example, Bouton (1994a, 1994b, and 1996) found that interpretation of certain types of implicatures (i.e., meanings implied by violating one or more conversational maxims[7]) are easier to teach than others. In one study, an experimental group received instruction in interpreting implicatures. Various implicatures were described and their possible uses were discussed. A control group, on the other hand, received instructinstruction on non-pragmatic aspects of language. Students in the experimental group were encouraged to compare implicatures in their L1, to find similar authentic examples inside and outside the classroom, and to make up their own examples. Test results after 6 weeks showed that both groups improved equally in interpreting easier implicatures, such as the deployment of Grice's relevance maxim:

> A: "How about going for a walk?"
> B: "*Isn't it raining out?*"
> (Bouton, 1996, p. 7)

However, the experimental group showed a significant improvement compared to the control group in interpreting more difficult implicatures, such as the implicatures shown below:

1) The "Pope Question" implicature:

> A: "Does Dr. Walker always give a test the day before vacation?"
> B: "*Does the sun come up in the east?*"

2) Irony:

> Bill and Peter work together in the same office. They sometimes are sent on business trips together and are becoming good friends. They often have lunch together and Peter has even invited Bill to have dinner with him and his wife at their home several times. Now Peter's friends have told him that they saw Bill out dancing with Peter's wife recently while Peter was out of town on a business trip. On hearing this, Peter's comment was: "*Bill knows how to be a really good friend, doesn't he?*"
> (Bouton, 1996, p. 8)

Although further study is necessary in order to understand what makes some implicatures more difficult than others, Bouton's findings suggest that some aspects of pragmatics are easier to learn than others. By focusing on difficult aspects, teachers can help learners develop competence in those areas.

How to Teach Pragmatics

Several ILP studies have been conducted on the question of how to teach pragmatics, which is what the majority of language teachers are interested in. Awareness-raising, as suggested by both empirical and theoretical studies, is one effective approach to the teaching of pragmatics. This approach aims at:

> developing learners' pragmatic awareness through classroom application of available descriptive frameworks and research results. It does not attempt to teach specific means of, say, performing a given speech act, but rather attempts to sensitize learners to context-based variation in language use and the variables that help determine that variation. (Rose, 1994, p. 37)

Drawing from research that suggests the importance of noticing in language acquisition and L1 pragmatics development, Schmidt (1993) argues awareness of pragmatic input is important for the acquisition of pragmatic competence. "Consciously paying attention to the relevant features of input and attempting to analyze their significance in terms of deeper generalization are both highly facilitative," he suggests, in the development of L2 pragmatics (p. 35). Therefore, tasks that focus the learner's attention on pragmatic forms, functions, and co-occurring features of social context are helpful in developing adult language learners' ILP.

Empirical studies in ILP and contrastive pragmatics also suggest that awareness-raising assists students in utilizing the pragmatic knowledge they already possess. Kasper (1997) found that L1 and L2 speakers have access to similar inventories of semantic formulae and other pragmatic resources, but language learners underuse universal or L1 pragmatic knowledge. Therefore, awareness-raising activities are useful in making language learners aware of their existing pragmatic competence and encouraging them to utilize the pragmatic resources they already possess.

Specific ideas for awareness-raising have been introduced in publications for language teachers, such as *TESOL Journal*, as well as at regional and national TESOL conferences. Tanaka (1997) suggests that students examine and discuss their L1 sociocultural rules and either observe and analyze target language discourse or develop a survey to explore similar rules in a target community. For example, one of Tanaka's students, after seeing the U.S. political debates on video, wrote:

> We have many different ways to say *no*. Before class, I thought that Americans just say *NO*. But I find out that it is not true. My favorite hobby is watching movies. So now, I'm going to start watching more carefully to learn different ways of saying *no* and many other things. (p. 16)

This student has noticed that there are various ways of expressing refusal, a starting point for exploring the complex relationship between pragmatics and contexts. Furthermore, the student has realized that his/her view of the target culture and language did not reflect reality. Since misconceived notions of the target language and culture are one cause for L2 speakers' pragmatic deviation, this activity is helpful in addressing one of the potential catalysts for pragmatic failure as well.[8]

One difficulty for anyone who tries to teach pragmatics is that it is so highly context dependent. No "magic line" will be appropriate for all contexts, and it is equally unrealistic to attempt to cover all contexts that students could possibly encounter. By being taught to be aware of pragmatics in various contexts, however, learners will develop the ability to figure out pragmatic patterns in new, previously unencountered contexts. In that sense also, raising learners' awareness is more useful than simply teaching selectively pragmatic patterns for limited, specific contexts.

Teaching Materials

There is urgent need for the development of teaching materials based on ILP empirical data. Teaching materials, especially textbooks, serve as important sources of input. What studies have illustrated about the treatment of pragmatics in textbooks, however, is rather discouraging. Bardovi-Harlig (1996) has shown that textbooks often do not present a particular speech act or language function at all. She also shows that such presentation, when it does occur, may not very accurately reflect reality.

Examining how the conversational function of "closing" was presented in 20 ESL textbooks, she found that only two textbooks attempted to present appropriate examples of closings. The dialogues in the remaining books either went only as far as preclosings or did not have closings at all, as in the following example:

Stanley: Hi, Dick.
Dick: Hi Stanley. Did you go to the football game yesterday?
Stanley: No, I went to the movies with my kids. Did our team win?
Dick: No, they didn't. They lost.
Stanley: Did they lose by much?
Dick: They lost by twelve points.
Stanley: Oh, that's awful. I'm glad I didn't go.
(Lado, 1989, cited in Bardovi-Harlig, 1996)

Conversational closing is an aspect of pragmatics about which language learners often express uneasiness. The difficulty language learners experi-

ence and the lack of examples in ESL teaching materials are perhaps not unrelated. Bouton (1990, 1996) also notes that no ESL textbooks make any direct attempt to develop students' abilities to understand and interpret implicatures. Although implicatures are used frequently in daily conversation, only a few examples of them are found in textbook dialogues.

EFL textbooks are also found to be inadequate as a source of input. LoCastro (1997) analyzed 34 EFL textbooks used in Japanese senior high schools to see how the formal linguistic markers of politeness are introduced. She found that they do not provide adequate resources necessary for students to control the politeness levels of their utterances. For example, there are no lessons or chapters devoted to a discussion of politeness, and examples of linguistic politeness markers are noticeably lacking. In some cases, dialogues lack necessary style shifting and politeness in particular contexts, as shown in the following example:

> Student: For my generation, life is so difficult.
> Teacher: Huh? Why?
> Student: It's so difficult to be original. Lindberg [sic] crossed the Atlantic. Others have climbed Mount Everest and gone to the moon. What's new?
> Teacher: How about a cure for cancer? Could you find one?
> Student: *Who, me? You must be kidding.* But I'd like to be in the famous Book of Records.
> (an example from *New Horizon II*, p. 94, cited in LoCastro, 1997, p. 252).

In this example, LoCastro argues that the response in italics is inappropriate given the power, status, and age differences between a teacher and a high school student. In other words, textbooks not only fail to provide enough input but they present inaccurate examples of how pragmatic context determines politeness levels in authentic communication. LoCastro also adds that teachers in Japan do not have many resources available to use in teaching politeness.

In teaching pragmatics, as in other aspects of L2 acquisition, it seems more realistic and desirable to aim for what Giles, Coupland, and Coupland (1991) call "optimal" rather than "total" convergence. In other words, rather than attempting to acquire native speaker competence in any and all aspects of L2 use (i.e., "total convergence"), a learner should aim at acquiring native-like language uses in those areas that are crucial for successful target language communication (i.e., "optimal convergence"). In order to develop a curriculum to achieve such optimal convergence, the differences between L1 and L2 speakers that influence communication need to be identified.

Conclusion

Understanding the nature of ILP and its developmental patterns helps teachers make an informed decision about the treatment of pragmatics in language classrooms. For example, the fact that L1 and L2 speakers have access to the same inventory of semantic formulae suggests that students do not need to be taught new formulae; rather, they need to learn how to make use of their inventory. Such findings from studies on teaching and learning have specific implications for classroom teaching. For example, analyses of teaching materials help teachers see what types of implicit messages textbooks send regarding what language is appropriate in what contexts. It also provides valuable guidance as to how teachers should compensate for shortcomings in their lesson plans and enrichment materials.

The field of ILP, in fact, is still in its developmental stage, and there are many issues to be studied within its scope of research. A review of studies to date suggests that ILP research has much to contribute to language pedagogy. As focus on the teaching and learning of pragmatics increases, ILP seems to be one field in second language studies from which language teachers can benefit greatly.

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Endnotes

[1] See Bachman (1987), Canale and Swain (1980), Savignon (1983) and Thomas (1983) for further discussion of pragmatic competence in relation to communicative competence.

[2] The term *speaker* is used to refer to the language user because almost all ILP studies to date have exclusively studied spoken language. Whether or not findings from ILP studies on spoken language are applicable to written language is yet to be investigated.

[3] The notion of *native speakers* as providers of standard, normative language has been challenged as variability exists in what they know about the language, what they can do with the language, and what they consider to be the

standard. In this paper, the term *native speakers* in used to refer broadly to people who speak the language as their first language, and *non-native speakers* to people who do not speak the language as their first language. The term *native speakers*, therefore, implies neither authority nor homogeneity.

[4] The most obvious reason for L2 speakers' pragmatic deviation is linguistic limitation. If speakers do not have adequate linguistic resources to say what they want to say, they cannot conform to the pragmatic rules in a speech community even if they are aware of the rules (e.g., Cohen & Olshtain, 1981). However, only a few ILP studies (e.g., Blum-Kulka, 1983) even mention linguistic limitation as a cause of pragmatic failure because linguistic proficiency is usually considered as a related but separate entity from pragmatic competence. Because of this lack of discussion in ILP studies, and also because resources to improve linguistic competence are more readily available outside of ILP studies, this paper does not discuss linguistic limitation as a cause of L2 pragmatic deviation.

[5] See also Beebe and Takahashi (1989a, 1989b) and Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz (1990).

[6] See also Edmondson and House (1991), Jaworski (1994) and Wilder-Basset (1984, 1986, 1994).

[7] Grice (1975) proposed that all humans, when they are being rational, are cooperative in communication, unconsciously observing the cooperative principle: "Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (p. 45).

Although what is "required" varies cross-culturally, the fact that humans are cooperative in constructing conversation, Grice argues, is a universal principle. He also proposed four special cases of this Cooperative Principle (CP), which he calls *maxims* (pp. 26-27):

Maxim of Quantity:

1. Make your contribution as informative as is required.
2. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

Maxim of Quality:

1. Do not say what you believe to be false.
2. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

Maxim of Relation:

Be relevant.

Maxim of Manner:

1. Avoid obscurity of expression.
2. Avoid ambiguity.
3. Be brief.
4. Be orderly.

The principle and four maxims are not prescriptive rules speakers are required to follow; rather, these are descriptions of what speakers naturally do. In actual conversations, however, these maxims are often seemingly violated as in the following example (Grice, 1975):

A: "Smith doesn't seem to have a girlfriend these days."
B: *"He's been driving to New York every weekend."*

B's response seems to violate the maxim of relation. However, this is not likely to result in an immediate communication breakdown; instead, A will try to figure out what B implied. Grice argues that the interpretation of such implication is possible because the cooperative principle is observed. When the speaker seems to have violated the maxim, we assume that there is a reason for it, rather than that the person is saying something totally irrelevant, for example, because we assume that the speaker is observing the CP.

In this case, B may be trying to convey that Smith has a girlfriend in New York, has too much work to do in New York that he doesn't have time to have girlfriend, or something else; either way, A will try to figure out the *implicature* (i.e., implied meaning) because he or she assumes that B observes the CP. In other words, the "violation" of the relevance maxim was actually only apparent; the observance of the CP allows B to convey *something more than what was actually said* and A to comprehend an *implicature.*

Implicature, which can be explained using the conversational maxims and CP, is used extensively in our everyday conversation and has been a focus of ILP studies as well (e.g., Bouton, 1992, 1994a, 1994b).

[8] Also see Bardovi-Harlig (1996), Cohen (1997) and Ebsworth and Ebsworth (1997) for more suggestions on awareness raising activities in language classrooms.

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The CATESOL Journal

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Promoting Collaboration: Using Computer-mediated Communication Tools in the MATESOL Practicum Course

■ **The traditional MATESOL practicum course involves placing teachers-in-preparation under the supervision of mentor teachers. While this arrangement allows individual teachers-in-preparation to develop a strong relationship with their mentor teachers, it often prevents them from engaging in a collaborative relationship with their peers. This paper describes how computer-mediated communication (CMC) tools have been integrated in a practicum course in order to promote peer support and collaboration. The paper concludes that the integration of CMC tools into the practicum course allows teachers-in-preparation to give and receive such support, to assume more responsibility for their own learning, and to be provided with increased opportunities for self-paced learning.**

In the traditional Master of Arts for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (MATESOL) practicum course, teachers-in-preparation are placed in different classrooms and perform a variety of tasks under the supervision of their mentor teachers. While this arragement allows individual teachers-in-preparation to develop a strong relationship with their mentor teachers, it often prevents them from engaging in a collaborative relationship with their peer teachers-in-preparation. This lack of collaboration may result in a feeling of isolation and anxiety and in the construction of knowledge in an idiosyncratic manner (Schlagal, Trathen, & Blanton, 1996). In this article, I will describe how computer-mediated communication (CMC) tools have been integrated in a practicum course offered

at California State University, Los Angeles (CSULA) in order to promote support and collaboration for teachers-in-preparation (See Appendix A for course syllabus).

Integrating Computer-mediated Communication Tools in the Practicum Course

The practicum course described in this article is the last in a sequence of three 40-hour courses that meet over successive 10-week terms. The courses are designed to introduce novice teachers to current instructional methods for teaching ESL/EFL for survival and academic purposes. The first course in the sequence, "Methods of Teaching Second Languages," addresses current instructional methods for teaching ESL/EFL to students at beginning through advanced levels. The course has three components. The first component is weekly demonstrations of techniques and strategies, followed by whole class face-to-face debriefings designed to promote reflection on how the techniques and strategies relate to theory. The second component is microteaching. Microteaching involves the development and implementation of five mini-lessons integrating the techniques and strategies demonstrated in the course. The third component involves the use of World-Wide-Web Course Tools (WebCT), a Web-based tool developed at the University of British Columbia that facilitates the creation of Web-based educational environments (Goldberg & Salari, 1997).

WebCT offers a variety of CMC tools, including: a conferencing tool, group presentation areas, electronic messaging (e-mail), synchronous chat areas, and an asynchronous Web-based bulletin board (BB) system. The synchronous chat areas involve "real-time" communication: participants are on-line at the same time and interact simultaneously. Asynchronous Web-based BB discussions do not involve "real-time" communication; that is, Web-based BB discussion participants are on-line (reading and posting messages) at different times. Such Web-based BB discussions are "threaded" in that they allow discussion participants to view the chronological and hierarchical relationships of postings.

Emphasis in the teaching methods course is placed on the asynchronous Web-based BB system since it is designed to promote collaboration and communication. Course participants use the Web-based Bulletin Board (BB) to engage in six group-led discussions designed to allow them to reflect on the course readings. These Web-based BB discussions, which are completed outside the classroom environment, are followed by class debriefings.

The second course in the sequence, "Teaching ESL for Academic Purposes," focuses on the theory, research, and practice of preparing ESL/EFL students for academic study. Course requirements include: react-

ing to course readings, completing a textbook review, and developing an instructional unit applying the principles of English for Academic Purposes, English for Specific Purposes, or Content-based Instruction.

The final course in the sequence, "Practicum in ESL," is designed to provide novice teachers with a supervised practicum experience in teaching ESL. The course includes three components that characterize traditional practicum courses: supervised field experience, group meetings, and individual conferences (adapted from Brinton, 1996).

The supervised field-experience component involves assigning teachers-in-preparation to an instructional setting of their choice (e.g., K-12, adult ESL, intensive English program, community college). In this setting, they complete a variety of tasks under the supervision of a mentor teacher. These tasks include—but are not limited to—developing lesson plans and activities, assisting the mentor teacher with lesson delivery, responding to individual students' needs, and developing and teaching five to seven mini-lessons.

The group meeting component involves twice-a-month sessions focusing on different topics (e.g., using Web-based technology to fulfill practicum-related tasks; designing lesson plans and classroom materials; promoting classroom interaction by implementing various grouping arrangements; developing skills for self- and peer-observation; sharing successful classroom practices implemented throughout the term).

The third component, individual conferences between the teacher educator and the teachers-in-preparation, consists of meetings held prior to and after observed lessons. These conferences allow for the joint identification of up to two areas of concern that become the focus of the classroom observation and subsequent work.

In addition to the three components that characterize traditional practicum courses, the course described in this article includes the use of two of the CMC tools available on WebCT. These are the asynchronous Web-based BB system and e-mail. Figure 1 (on page 64) illustrates the home page of the practicum course Web site.

The asynchronous Web-based BB system is used weekly throughout the course. Every week, novice teachers, mentor teachers, and the teacher educator engage in Web-based BB discussions focused on the needs of the teachers-in-preparation. These novice teachers take weekly turns identifying and posting "burning issues" (Irujo & Johnson, 1997)—questions or topics of concern that they have identified in the context of their classrooms. Peers and the teacher educator respond to these weekly postings. While mentor teachers also participate in the discussions, time constraints may lead them to do so only occasionally. Figure 2 (on page 65) presents a sample Web-based BB discussion assignment and its corresponding schedule.

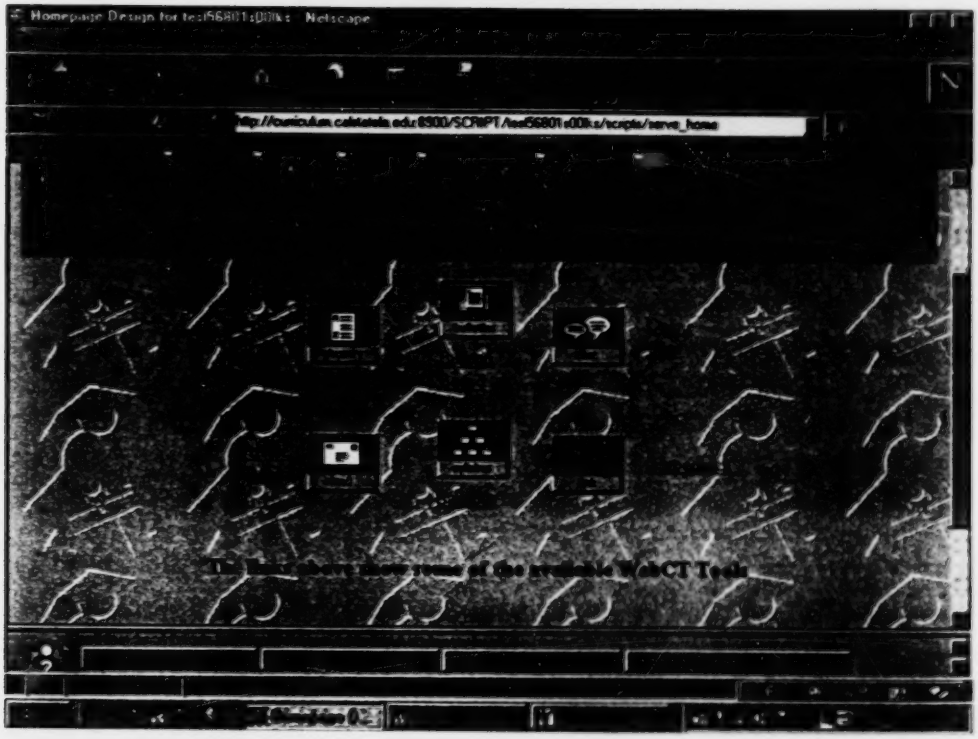

Figure 1. *"Field Work in English as a Second Language" Web page at http://curriculum.calstatela.edu:8900/SCRIPT/tesl568s1lks/scripts/serve_home.*

The second Web-based CMC tool used in the practicum course is the WebCT e-mail system. E-mail, used from the third week forward, allows individual teachers-in-preparation to engage in private conversations with the course instructor about issues that directly affect them. These issues may include their instructional needs, teaching schedules, concerns regarding their status as nonnative English speakers (NNESs), and their relationship with their mentor teachers. Unless teachers-in-preparation choose to share their entries with their peers, all e-mail messages remain confidential.

Benefits Arising from the Integration of CMC Tools in the Practicum

The integration of Web-based BB discussions into traditional teacher training courses often results in two immediate benefits: (1) it promotes the construction of knowledge as a social activity and (2) it allows teachers to work at their own pace.

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Each of you will take weekly turns identifying a "burning issue" (Irujo & Johnson, 1997). A burning issue is a question or a topic of concern that you have identified in the context of your teaching and classroom experience. You will post the burning issue on the WebCT BB by the date and time indicated below, and your peers and the instructor will respond to your posting. Please note that your mentor teachers have been invited to participate in the BB discussions; since they are very busy, however, they may choose to do so only occasionally. When you post your burning issue, make sure to give it a number and a title (e.g., *Burning Issue # 4. To what extent should we cover grammar in the language classroom?).* When you respond to a posting: (a) stay on topic; (b) be concise (Irujo & Johnson, 1997); (c) respond personally; (d) keep a positive tone; (e) do not be overly concerned about grammar.

Posting of Burning Issues	Name of the person posting the Burning Issue	Posting of responses by all teachers-in-preparation
Practice message	Instructor	In class
By April 9, 8:00 p.m.	Jennifer	By April 15, 8:00 p.m.
By April 16, 8:00 p.m.	Rodrigo	By April 22, 8:00 p.m.
By April 23, 8:00 p.m.	James	By April 29, 8:00 p.m.
By April 30, 8:00 p.m.	Mary	By May 6, 8:00 p.m.
By May 7, 8:00 p.m.	Linda	By May 13, 8:00 p.m.
By May 14, 8:00 p.m.	Tomoko	By May 20, 8:00 p.m.
By May 21, 8:00 p.m.	Sung	By May 27, 8:00 p.m.
By May 28, 8:00 p.m.	Cynthia	By June 3, 8:00 p.m.

Figure 2. *Sample "Burning Issues" Schedule.*

Web-based BB discussions promote the construction of knowledge as a social activity

Web-based discussions allow teachers-in-preparation, mentor teachers, and the course instructor to share their perspectives on teaching in an atmosphere of mutual trust and respect and with the understanding that all of the participants have something to learn from one another. In the following quotation, a teacher-in-preparation reflects upon the value of such sharing:

I am thankful that I was introduced to WebCT, a wonderful tool. It helped me so much in collecting information, ideas from peers, instructors and other reliable sources. We also shared ideas and discussed "burning issues."

The high degree of responsibility and control that the novice teachers assume in a Web-based BB discussion also promotes the construction of knowledge as a social activity. Such egalitarianism is in contrast to traditional face-to-face interactions, in which the instructional sequence is usually determined by the course instructor (Cazden, 1988). Instead, most of the "burning issues" posted are driven by the needs and interests of the teachers-in-preparation and the role of the course instructor in setting the instructional sequence is minimal. In the course described here, only two of the 12 "burning issues" were posted by the instructor (see Figure 3).

"Burning Isssues"	Posted by
Your Beliefs as Classroom Teachers	Instructor
Ideas on the "Dress Code"	Instructor
Balancing the Needs of Individual Students with Curriculum Guidelines and Goals	Jennifer
Standardized Teacher Testing	Rodrigo
Placing Students with Different Proficiency Levels in the Same Class	James
"That Test Was Too Hard!!"	Jennifer
Teaching Noncount and Count Nouns and Verb Tenses	Jennifer
Need Help with Ideas for Spring Program. Help!!!!!	Rodrigo
Dealing with Your Personal Demons	Mary
Topics in an American Culture Class	Cynthia
Different Ways to Share the Information After Group Discussions	Tomoko
Teaching Students Who Are Linguistically Low and Cognitively High	Sung

Figure 3. *"Burning Issues" Posted in the Course of a Term.*

Web-based BB discussions are characterized by a high degree of interaction. In the process of negotiating information, teachers-in-preparation direct their responses to selected peers; very often, they engage in multiple dialogues. For example, as shown in the thread presented in Figure 4, Jennifer first posted a "burning issue" (posting # 256). The following week, she directed her response to a posting by Cynthia (posting # 265). Additionally, on the same day, she directed another response to a posting by Mary (posting # 260). Finally, toward the end of the week, she directed a posting to another message by Cynthia (posting # 275). An excerpt of the transcripts reflecting the multiple dialogues in which teachers-in-preparation participated is presented in Appendix B.

256. Jennifer (Thu, Apr. 8, 1999, 16:11)
260. Mary (Sat, Apr. 10, 1999, 20:02)
262. Jennifer (Sun, Apr. 11, 1999. 16:22)
263. Instructor (Sun, Apr. 11, 1999, 18:17)
265. Cynthia (Mon, Apr. 12, 1999, 11:39)
268. Jennifer (Mon, Apr. 12, 1999, 23:23)
279. Linda (Thu, Apr. 15, 1999, 21:02)
266. Jennifer (Mon, Apr. 12, 1999, 11:44)
267. Tomoko (Mon, Apr. 12, 1999, 21:51)
269. Jennifer (Mon, Apr. 12, 1999, 23:33)
270. Instructor (Tue, Apr. 13, 1999, 18:21)
274. Tomoko (Wed, Apr. 13, 1999, 20:49)
282. Instructor (Thu, Apr. 15, 1999, 23:51)
275. Cynthia (Thu, Apr. 15, 1999, 15:16)
271. Elis (Tue, Apr. 13, 1999, 18:38)
276. Instructor (Thu, Apr. 15, 1999, 18:28)
272. Rodrigo (Tue, Apr. 13, 1999, 22:00)
273. Sung (Tue, Apr. 13, 1999, 23:00)
284. James (Fri, Apr. 16, 1999, 18:06)

Figure 4. *Typical Thread Observed in the Web-based BB Discussions.*

Another feature of the Web-based BB system that promotes the construction of knowledge as a social activity is a forum that allows teachers-in-preparation to share and build upon ideas discussed in the practicum course and/or other MATESOL courses. For example, the dialogue in Appendix B illustrates how the BB system allows novice teachers to make connections across courses such as "Practicum in ESL" and "Teaching ESL for

Academic Purposes." It also allows for input and guidance from mentor teachers, as shown in the dialogue in Appendix B where Elis, one of the mentor teachers, collaborates and assists these novices in developing a repertoire of teaching techniques.

Web-based BB discussions allow teachers-in-preparation to work at their own pace

The asynchronous nature of the BB system allows all course participants to work at their own pace. As noted by several teachers-in-preparation, the fact that the BB system does not require them to perform under pressure creates a nonthreatening atmosphere, thus leading to better learning conditions. The asynchronous nature of the BB system is particularly appealing to NNESs, who often benefit from the reduction in the social and linguistic barriers experienced in face-to-face interactions. One such NNES notes: "WebCT allows NNESs to have control over their own learning process. WebCT doesn't threaten us and allows us to focus on the burning issue we are discussing."

Another appealing feature of the Web-based BB system is the visible record of discussions it provides, allowing the developing teachers to retrieve, reread, and reflect upon postings made during the term. Thus, the integration of Web-based e-mail dialogues in the practicum can result in a reduction in the social distance between the teacher educator and individual teachers-in-preparation. In contrast to the group nature of the discussions fostered by the Web-based BB system, the Web-based e-mail system allows the teacher educator to address issues that have an immediate effect on the teaching performance of individual teachers-in-preparation.

The concerns raised in the Web-based e-mail dialogues are of two types. Teachers-in preparation usually report and reflect on their teaching experience, ask for assistance on the development of specific lesson plans, and share concerns regarding their practicum experience. Additionally, NNESs often share their anxiety regarding their status as second language (L2) speakers and receive emotional and professional support regarding this issue. Following is an excerpt from an e-mail entry reflecting the concern expressed by a nonnative English-speaking teacher-in-preparation:

> I have a question. An ESL teacher should provide correct input. However, since I am not a native speaker, occasionally, I may use an odd expression native speakers seldom use or I may make a mistake. It's not good to give the wrong input. Neither is it a good idea to ask the mentor teacher to correct the mistake in front of the students. Do you agree with me? I think teachers who are non-

native speakers can help students better in different ways. Could you give me some advice on how to become a better nonnative English-speaking teacher? I am concerned about providing inappropriate input. What do you think?

Conclusion

The integration of CMC tools, including the Web-based BB and e-mail systems, has enhanced the learning experience of the teachers-in-preparation enrolled in the practicum course. Specifically, the use of CMC tools has allowed teachers-in-preparation to give and receive support, thus promoting a lower anxiety level than that typically experienced by novice teachers. It has also allowed them to assume more responsibility for their own learning and has provided a forum for self-paced learning. Moreover, the integration of CMC tools in the practicum course has motivated experienced ESL teachers to become mentor teachers. According to several of the mentor teachers involved in the course, the collaborative approach to teacher preparation provided by the use of CMC tools is appealing to experienced teachers with a desire for professional growth.

Finally, the integration of CMC tools into the practicum course has allowed teachers-in-preparation to develop technological competence through an approach to technology instruction that is hands-on and does not treat technolgy as a separate subject (Kamhi-Stein, 1996). Looking toward the future, it is expected that the implementation of various Web-based tools, including but not limited to multi-media (sound and video) and voice mail, will further encourage teachers-in-preparation to engage in collaborative projects, resulting in an even more meaningful practicum experience.

Author

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Appendix A

Syllabus for MATESOL Practicum Course using CMC Tools*

TESL 568: Practicum in English as a Second Language
TESOL PROGRAM
Division of Educational Foundations and Interdivisional Studies
Charter School of Education
California State University, Los Angeles
Instructor: Dr. Lia D. Kamhi-Stein

CATALOG DESCRIPTION:

Prerequisite: TESL 560 or TESL 564. TESL 568 is a supervised field experience in teaching English as a second language.

STUDENT OUTCOMES—CONTENT STANDARDS, PROCESS STANDARDS, AND PERFORMANCE STANDARDS:

Content Standard # 1

Teachers-in-preparation will demonstrate an understanding of the curriculum design process.

Performance Standards:

1. Teachers-in-preparation will develop materials designed to meet the needs of the ESL students enrolled in the classroom to which they have been assigned.
2. Teachers-in-preparation will adapt textbook materials that will meet the needs of the ESL students enrolled in the classroom to which they have been assigned.
3. Teachers-in-preparation will submit lesson plans to the university supervisor or to their mentor teachers two days before they are scheduled to teach the lessons.

Content Standard # 2

Teachers-in-preparation will demonstrate growth in their ESL teaching skills.

* Adapted from Brinton, D. M. (Spring, 1996). *Supervised teaching: English as a second language. TESL 380 course syllabus.* University of California, Los Angeles: Los Angeles, CA

Performance Standards:

1. Teachers-in-preparation will fulfill a minimum of 30 hours of supervised field experience.
2. Teachers-in-preparation will teach a minimum of 6-7 times over the term.
3. Teachers-in-preparation will perform a variety of tasks (to be determined by the mentor teacher in collaboration with the teacher-in-preparation), including but not limited to: working with small groups of students, assisting the mentor teacher in the development of lesson plans, responding to the needs of individual students, etc.
4. Teachers-in-preparation will meet with the university supervisor before and after the university supervisor's observation. These meetings are designed to assist the teachers-in-preparation to reflect upon their instructional strategies.
5. Teachers-in-preparation will videotape one lesson and will present a report on their lesson's strengths and weaknesses.
6. Teachers-in-preparation will observe a peer's instructional strategies, complete a report on their peer's lesson and discuss the report with their peer.

Content Standard # 3

Teachers-in-preparation will demonstrate the ability to function in an educational environment.

Performance standards:

1. Teachers-in-preparation will engage in regular communication with the university supervisor and with their peers by participating in computer-mediated communication (CMC) activities, including: (a) a weekly WebCT BB discussion and (b) a weekly e-mail dialog journal.
2. Teachers-in-preparation will attend five two-hour meetings on campus.
3. Teachers-in-preparation will submit a professional portfolio.

GRADING PROCEDURES:

Number	Activity	Points
1.	Attendance (five group meetings *and* individual conferences)	15 points
2.a	WebCT bulletin board answers (8)	16 points
2.b	WebCT bulletin board question (1)	2 points

3.	E-mail dialogue journal (4)	8 points
4.	Report on a peer's lesson (via e-mail)	5 points
5.	Oral report on a videotaped lesson	5 points
6.	Portfolio	20 points
7.	Thirty hours of field experience	29 points
	Total	100 points

COURSE SCHEDULE: GROUP MEETINGS

Session Number	Topic
1	Introduction to Course Review: The Structure of the Lesson Discussion: Materials available in Dr. Kamhi-Stein's office
2	Materials Development Classroom Observation Checklists
3	Error Correction & Feedback Videotaped Reports
4	Videotaped Reports
5	Presentation by ESL Instructors (Adult Education, Community College—Credit and Noncredit ESL) The Job Market, Job Hunting

Course Rubric:

An "A" or "A-" grade represents a high level of performance shown by the depth and complex thinking required to meet the three content standards, the course requirements above, and the criteria presented in the assignment rubrics. You must earn between 90-100 points to receive an "A."

A "B" or "B-" grade represents an average level of performance shown by the depth and complex thinking required to meet the three content standards, the course requirements above, and the criteria presented in the assignment rubrics. You must earn between 80-89.9 points to receive a "B."

A "C" or "C-" grade represents a minimal level of performance shown by the depth and complex thinking required to meet the three content standards, the course requirements above, and the criteria presented in the assignment rubrics. You must earn between 75-79.9 points to receive a "C." A "C-" is not a passing grade for graduate study.

Point Rage	Grade
94-100	A
90-93.9	A-
87-89.9	B+
83-86.9	B
80-82.9	B-
77-79.9	C+
73-76.9	C

DESCRIPTION OF ASSESSMENT PROCEDURES

The WebCT Bulletin Board Postings (Burning Issues):

Throughout the quarter, you will use WebCT. You will take weekly turns:

(a) Identifying "a burning issue" (Irujo & Johnson, 1997), that is a question or a topic of concern that you have identified in the context of your classroom,

(b) posting the "burning issue" on the WebCT electronic bulletin board by the date and time indicated in Table 1 and

(c) facilitating the discussion.

Please note that your mentor teachers have been invited to participate in the electronic bulletin board discussions; however, since they are very busy, they may have difficulty participating and may choose to do so only occasionally.

When posting the "burning issue," make sure to give it a number and a title (e.g., *Burning Issue # 4. To what extent should we cover grammar in the language classroom?).*

When responding to the "burning issue":

(a) stay on topic;

(b) be concise (Irujo & Johnson, 1997);

(c) respond personally;

(d) keep a positive tone; and

(e) don't be overly concerned about grammar. Sample postings will be distributed and analyzed.

Your answers are worth 16 points. Your question is worth 2 points. Late responses (by one day) will receive a 1-point deduction. No points will be

given if the responses are more than one day late. The responses will be graded on the degree of reflection/analysis and responsivity to the question posted. Generic responses will not receive points.

The WebCT E-mail Dialogue Journal

Starting in weeks 3 or 4 (depending on your teaching schedule), you and I will engage in weekly correspondence via e-mail dialogue journal (for a total of four entries for the term). The purpose of the dialogue journal is to engage in a private conversation focusing on issues that relate to your practicum experience and to allow you to obtain my direct feedback on them (Rhodes & Christian, 1993). The dialogue journal will be different from your electronic bulletin board postings in two ways.

First, all journal entries will focus on issues that affect you directly, that is your instructional practices, needs and concerns; your teaching schedule; and your interactions with your master teacher. For example, in your entries you may choose to deal with your evaluation of lessons taught by you, your reflections on your progress and growth as a practicing teacher, your questions regarding lesson design and delivery. Second, all journal entries will remain confidential in that I will be the only person reading and responding to your entries unless you choose to copy a peer.

Four entries: 8 points

The entries are due by the end of Weeks 3 or 4, 4 or 5, 5 or 6, 6 or 7

Report on a Peer's Lesson (Novice Teachers)

Decide which of your peers you are going to observe, schedule the observation session well in advance, complete a report on your peer's lesson (see checklists) and meet with your peer to discuss the report. Give your peer a copy of your report.

5 points

Submit the report to your instructor via email. Copy your peer on your report.

Oral Report on a Videotaped Lesson

You will give a report on one of your videotaped lessons. You will accompany your presentation with the videotape. The report is designed to help you to reflect on your instructional strategies or to provide you with feedback on your "action research."

5 points

Portfolio

During the week of finals, you will submit a portfolio demonstrating your "efforts, progress, and achievement" (McLaughlin & Vogt, 1996, p. 108) over the course of the term. Your portfolio will contain the following items:

1. A cover letter and a copy of your resume
2. An introduction/rationale explaining how the portfolio is organized and why it is organized in such a way
3. A copy of one of your videotaped mini-lesson accompanied by your reflection. Remember that your reflection does not involve an evaluation of the *quality* of your instructional practices; instead, it involves a candid analysis of your instructional practices
4. A copy of a lesson plan used in one of your mini-lessons accompanied by a reflection on the lesson's strengths and weaknesses
5. A copy of your mentor teacher's observation report followed by your response
6. A report of how you would use an electronic bulletin board and/or e-mail in the ESL/EFL classroom
7. A revised version of the report on the results of your "action research"
8. A report on your overall practicum experience, including your perceived strengths and needs as a future ESL/EFL teacher and any future steps you are planning to take in order to work on your perceived needs

20 points

The Field Experience

This quarter, you will spend a total of thirty hours in the classroom to which you have been assigned. In this classroom you will work under the supervision of a mentor teacher who may ask you to perform a variety of tasks (e.g., work with small groups of students, assist the mentor teacher in the development of lesson plans; respond to needs of individual students, etc.). In addition, at your site you will be responsible for developing and teaching six to seven mini-lessons (15-20 minutes each). Remember that you will be expected to videotape one of your lessons. For that purpose, you should schedule the use of the video camera and tripod available in my office well in advance. When working at your site, you should:

1. Rely on your mentor teacher for assistance and guidance;
2. show receptivity to your mentor teacher's feedback;
3. schedule your mini-lessons and consult with your mentor teacher regarding lesson plans and classroom activities well in advance; and
4. schedule a conference with your mentor teacher prior to and after each of your mini-lessons.

29 points

Observation by Mentor Teacher and/or Supervisor

I will observe four of your mini-lessons during the course. Each observation will include a pre- and a post-observation conference with me. Therefore, you should:

1. Schedule the pre- and post-observation conferences well in advance (it is *your* responsibility to schedule these conferences with me) and
2. give me a copy of your lesson plans (including handouts and classroom materials) at least *48 hours* prior to our pre-observation conferences. Feel free to e-mail me your lesson plans as long as they include all the materials you are planning to use.

Internet resources for ESL/EFL teachers

Here's a list of Web sites where you will find useful information:

1. Information Competence Grant
   http://curriculum.calstatela.edu/faculty/lkamhis/info/index.htm
2. TESOL Program at Cal State LA
   http://www.calstatela.edu/academic/tesol/tesolhpg.htm/
3. AskERIC
   http://ericir.syr.edu
4. TESOL
   http://www.tesol.edu/
5. Nonnative English Speakers in TESOL Caucus
   http://curriculum.calstatela.edu/faculty/lkamhis2/NNestCaucus/
6. CATESOL
   http://www.catesol.org
7. California Department of Education:
   http://www.cde.ca.gov

8. TESL-EJ
   http://www-writing.berkeley.edu/TESL-EJ/
9. Center for Applied Linguistics
   http://www.cal.org
10. National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education:
    http://www.ncbe.gwu.edu
11. Reading Online
    http://www.readingonline.org/
12. Language Learning and Technology
    http://llt.msu.edu/
13. Purdue University Online Writing Lab
    http://owl.english.purdue.edu/
14. The Electronic Journal for Computer Writing, Rhetoric and Literature
    http://www.cwrl.utexas.edu/~cwrl/index.html
15. Asian Journal of English Language
    http://www.cuhk.edu.hk/ajelt/
16. Teaching Information Competence
    http://curriculum.calstatela.edu/faculty/lkamhis/info/index.htm
17. Project LEAP: Learning English for Academic Purposes
    http://curriculum.calstatela.edu/faculty/asnow/ProjectLEAP/
18. International Society for Technology in Education
    http://www.iste.org/Standards/NCATE/found.html

Appendix B

Excerpt of a Web-based BB Discussion

Posting by Jennifer

Subject: Burning Issue # 2—Balancing the needs of Individual Students with Curriculum Guidelines and Goals.

Since I have not yet started my class observation, I thought that a question that was brought up in the readings for TESL 564, Teaching ESL for Academic Purposes, might be interesting to explore. As a novice teacher, one of the issues that has always puzzled me is how you balance the needs of individual students with the curriculum guidelines and goals of the institution where you work. For example, the students have to take an exit test, so you must cover all of the material that will be in the test; therefore, it's hard to find time for many of the "fun" activities that you would otherwise incor-

porate into your lesson plan. I welcome your thoughts and wish you the best in your classroom observations and projects. Jennifer

Posting by Mary
I believe a balance can be reached between the two. A fun activity doesn't necessarily have to take the whole class time...I think it takes a gifted and or an experienced teacher to find a fun way to incorporate both. What the students need to know to pass their exit test and a way of learning the information in a fun and innovative style. Good and thoughtful question Jennifer. Mary

Posting by Cynthia
Excellent question Jennifer...Well, as teachers we do have to find the balance...Oh, and by the way Mary, you do not need to be gifted or experienced to be a balanced teacher. Anyone can make ESL fun! Basically, you need ideas/resources and common sense...

Posting by Jennifer
Dear Cynthia: I agree with you and thanks for the suggestions. Do you think that it would be helpful to make one day of the week a "fun activity day" or to incorporate fun activities into class in a more random fashion? Jennifer

Posting by Cynthia
Well Jennifer, an activity "fun day" sounds pretty motivating to me. I know younger students always love a "something—day" to look forward to. They love structure and consistency. For instance, on Fridays...
Posting by Jennifer
Dear Mary: I don't know about you, but I know that as time goes on, I will feel more relaxed in my teaching. It's hard to think about the fact that the students will be scrutinizing your every move and comparing you to other teachers they've had. But I do believe that we can be creative even if we don't have a lot of experience. I'm sure you have all the qualities you'll need in this department! Thanks for your response. Jennifer

Posting by Tomoko
I think that teachers should consider the needs of individual students the most because their needs are closely related to their motivations...When I taught in Japan, I had a hard time balancing between the needs of the students, curriculum goals, and the students' needs to prepare for entrance examinations...Here is what I did to make my lessons more interesting...I

tried different techniques to meet both the students' needs and interests and test requirements, but it was very hard to satisfy each individual student. If you have more ideas, please let me know. Thank you.

Posting by Jennifer
Tomoko, your modifications and efforts in accommodating your students deserve a big pat on the back. I just wanted to say that you will NEVER satisfy EVERYONE and you cannot beat yourself up for that! As long as you are trying your best, you need to be affirmed that you are doing an excellent job as a teacher. You're human, you're an educator, you are not a miracle worker!...

Posting by Tomoko
I agree that teachers cannot be liked by every student, and Jennifer's response to my posting encouraged me. Thank you...

Posting by Jennifer
Dear Jennifer and everybody for that matter: I am so encouraged and inspired by all of your postings. I definitely deal with the "wanting to be liked" syndrome; however,...We as TESOL teachers have the options that you and others talked about...we can make it fun and yet meet student needs. That is why I wanted to take this class...I want to learn in the field from experienced and non-experienced teachers so that I can not only build up my confidence but also learn from others. My desire is to be the best teacher I can be, but I am also aware that this will take time. Jennifer

Posting by Elis
Before I started teaching in college, I taught at a language school where teaching for a test was not that important. I could be creative in my lessons and have "fun games"...Now that I teach in three different colleges, I feel the pressure to follow the curriculum and prepare the students for the "exit test."...I think the most important thing is to get a feel of how your students are, what you can and cannot do with them, and what they expect from you. Don't worry; be happy! Elis

The CATESOL Journal

MARK WADE LIEU
Oblone College

Teaching ESL On-line

■ **In Fall 1998, an on-line intermediate grammar/writing course was offered using the Internet and e-mail as the primary means of instruction and communication. The goal was to transfer successfully the involvement and the dynamism of the ESL classroom to an on-line environment. The author describes the planning involved in adapting an existing course to the Internet, including the rationale for instructional design decisions. At the end of the semester, the course was evaluated both by the instructor and by the students. While general communication between teacher and student was good, the author concludes that the adaptation was not completely successful. Based on the evaluations, recommendations are given for improving the course in future semesters.**

While distance learning may not be perceived as ideal for the teaching of ESL, the use of technology and computers in particular is quite widespread in ESL instruction. As testimony to this, the international organization Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) has recently published several volumes on using technology in the ESL classroom (Boswood, 1997; Egbert & Hanson-Smith, 1999; Hanson-Smith, 1998; Healey & Johnson, 1999; Warschauer, 1995). Boswood (1997), for example, points to the use of e-mail and networked computers as a strong source of motivation for language learning as well as a means for providing immediate feedback from both instructor and other students. Further, a study by Pratt and Sullivan (as cited in Warschauer, 1995) showed that the use of e-mail increased student participation in class discussions.

One of the early leaders in the use of the Internet for ESL learning is Dave Sperling, the creator of the largest ESL resource site on the Web, *Dave's ESL Café* (1998a). Sperling created the *ESL Café* after a Web-page

development project with an unmotivated ESL class generated lots of e-mail, authentic communication, and motivation (Clemes, 1998). In addition to his Web site, which receives hits and submissions from all over the world, Sperling has published two guides to Internet use—one for English language teachers, *The Internet Guide for English Language Teachers* (1998b) and one for ESL teachers, *Dave Sperling's Internet Activity Book* (1999).

In addition to Sperling's work, Padron and Waxman (1996) cite several studies showing that appropriate instructional technology programs can benefit English language learners from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds. Advantages mentioned include the flexibility to address a variety of levels of English proficiency, the ability to introduce and reinforce vocabulary in context, and the provision of opportunities for students to speak, listen, read, write, and communicate in authentic and meaningful ways. In order to achieve these benefits, materials must be flexible, be presented in context, be appropriate for the learner, address multiple learning modalities, promote interaction, and have an extensive help system. Hunt (1993) emphasizes that teachers also need in-service to learn how to use the materials effectively.

While the use of technology in general is fairly well-accepted in ESL instruction, its application to ESL distance learning programs is not as universally accepted (California Virtual University, 1998). Nonetheless, examples of technology used for ESL distance learning do exist. In 1996, the publishing company of Heinle & Heinle produced the video series *Crossroads Café* (Savage, Gonzales, McMullin, & Weddel), targeting this series squarely at the distance learning market.

This 26-episode series was designed "to teach English to adult learners working independently, with a tutor, in a distance-learning program with or without a classroom component or in a traditional classroom setting" (Savage et al., 1996, p. i). As a video course, *Crossroads Café* represents a non-interactive approach to distance learning. A search through the Internet for information about ESL courses using a more interactive approach reveals even fewer sources.

One of the few published reports of ESL instruction delivered via the Internet is Goodwin, Hamrick and Stewart's (1993) account in the *TESOL Journal* concerning the use of e-mail to better prepare students in the Latin American Scholarship Program of American Universities for studying and living in the United States. The students received reading and writing assignments via e-mail and were instructed to e-mail each other in order to get acquainted. Technological difficulties marred the effectiveness of the program, but the overall evaluation by the participants from Peru, Paraguay, Ecuador, El Salvador, Colombia, Chile, and Mexico was positive.

At the 1998 CATESOL State Conference, there were two presentations on teaching ESL via the Internet (Tucker, 1998; Chan, 1998). Both

of these presentations prompt the question of what is needed for effective ESL distance learning using on-line technologies. Perhaps part of the problem lies in the fact that so few ESL educators are currently involved in on-line distance learning. As a result, recommendations for ESL educators are coming from people outside the field—technology support personnel, administrators, and educators in other disciplines.

Denise Murray, former president of TESOL, summarizes this problem in a column she wrote on language learning in cyberspace: "I worry about the new information technology. I worry because I don't see [ESL] educators and language specialists taking the lead" (Murray, 1998, p. 9). This article is a first step in addressing Murray's concerns and in examining the particular issues that confront the on-line ESL educator.

Introduction to the On-line Course

At Ohlone College, one of the California Community College campuses, a survey of Writing Lab students had shown that significantly more ESL students than native-speaking students had access to computers and used them in their daily lives. As a result of this study and in response to Ohlone's initiative to explore the delivery of on-line courses, I adapted the second of two intermediate ESL grammar/writing courses offered at Ohlone (ESL 148) for on-line delivery in Fall 1998. Ohlone gave each on-line instructor a stipend equivalent to 3-units of overload pay for course development, advertising the course with fliers, in a special section of the Fall course schedule, and on the college Web site .

Seven students enrolled for the first semester, five women and two men. Two of the women and two of the men worked full time and used computers regularly at work. They took the course primarily to help them with their professional goals. Two of the remaining three women were full-time students. They took the on-line course because their schedules prevented them from taking other sections of the class offered on campus. Both of these women used computers, but neither classified themselves as experienced users. The last student was the wife of an executive and took the class to give herself an incentive for improving her computer skills as well as to work on her English. Of the seven students, five finished the course. One woman and one man, both of whom were working full-time, had to drop the course because of work demands.

I taught ESL 148 again in Spring 1999, with a class enrollment of twelve. Eight of the students completed the course. Other on-line courses at Ohlone College enrolled more than twenty students, the minimum required for an in-person course, and offered transfer credit, while my ESL grammar course did not. While the college was supportive of on-line

courses, my second semester course was threatened with cancellation due to low enrollment. Despite the possibility of cancellation and the enrollment and attrition problems, I was not disheartened. Chan (1998a) describes a similar gradual increase in course enrollment and a similar attrition rate for her on-line ESL grammar and editing courses. Tucker (1998) also reports high attrition rates for her on-line ESL advanced reading and composition course.

Instructional Design

My "in-person" ESL 148 grammar class is both an active and interactive classroom. My evaluations are consistently high, and students have commented on the clarity of my explanations, my classroom humor, and my concern for their progress. The task in adapting my course to Internet delivery was to find equivalents for the most successful strategies.

The first design decision concerned lesson presentation. The ESL department had a required text for all sections, including the on-line course, and the course outline required short writings to reinforce the grammar being taught in the class. In my in-person class, students read the grammar explanation in the book for homework; I re-present and clarify this text in class. Since what I re-present in class is not new information, I decided not to re-present the already available text on-line. The students had their books, and if the explanations were not clear, they could e-mail me for clarification. Sometimes, however, I added additional points. For example, in the chapter on adjectival clauses, the book does not cover the use of punctuation with such constructions. For the in-person class, I provide an additional handout with a brief overview as well as an exercise.

Therefore, when developing the on-line chapter notes, I focused on the supplemental information that I presented for each in-person lesson. I also included two interactive grammar units that I had created for use over the Web, one on the passive voice and one on adjectival clauses. I used few graphics from the in-person class, so the chapter notes did not suffer in their adaptation to a Web page. In fact, because they were on the Web, students could simply print them out for reference, rather than copy them off the board, as my students do in the traditional class.

Lesson presentation in the traditional class usually occupies only 5 minutes out of 50 for any given class period. The bulk of each class period is spent correcting and reviewing the homework using the overhead projector, orally as a class, or in pairs with me answering specific student questions. Finally, students write some exercises that I correct and return, usually for revision and resubmission.

Translating the exercise correction that I traditionally do with the

overhead projector for use in the on-line class was quite simple. For fill-in-the-blank questions, I typed up an answer key that on-line students could refer to. For sentence responses, I prepared a set of possible answers, noting that the students' answers might differ. In both situations, students could use either e-mail or the discussion lists to ask questions about their own answers.

I was unable to find an equivalent for oral exercises, so students answered those questions in writing instead, with a key provided for possible answers. For pair work, I set up assignments where students exchanged e-mails with their answers and responses. In addition to changing the focus from teacher to student, I also hoped these e-mail exchanges might help foster some of the sense of class community that develops in my in-person classes. I scheduled the same written assignments for the on-line students as I do for the in-person students.

My in-person classes meet two to three times a week. As a result, the homework for a week is spread out over multiple sessions with two nights to complete each assignment. For my on-line students, posting a new homework assignment every other day seemed impractical. While e-mail was a reasonably effective medium for communication, it could not compare in economy or speed with raising one's hand in class to ask a question.

In addition, some students might not check their e-mail more than once every 24 hours. If they happened to miss the posting one day, they would have then only one day to complete the assignment. Pair assignments via e-mail could clearly take several days—as opposed to minutes in an in-person classroom. As a result, I decided to post one weekly homework assignment that equaled in amount the two assignments I give in-person for the week.

Because the first official day of class was a Wednesday, I designated Wednesdays as the date on which I posted homework assignments for the coming week. I wanted to provide the answer keys early enough so students could still post questions before the next homework assignment came out, but not so early that students would be tempted to look at the answers before working on the exercises. For this reason, I set the weekend, preferably Saturday, as the time to post the answers in order to give the students three days to review their work.

The format for the homework was fairly standard. To provide content, I typed full sentences for answers regardless of whether the exercises were fill-in-the-blanks or sentence completion. Midway through the semester I began highlighting the words for fill-in-the-blank answers with bold-faced type. I considered only briefly having my on-line students submit every exercise for correction because I could not see how I would find time to correct 200 sets of exercises a week in addition to writing and quizzes.

For the eight chapters that I cover in the in-person class, there are six review sessions followed by quizzes. The review prepares the student for the format of the quiz, which varies from chapter to chapter. For example, the chapter quiz for passive voice requires students to read a paragraph and decide which sentences to change into the passive voice. The chapter quiz for adjectival clauses requires students to make adjectival clauses to clarify sentences based on a picture. The chapter quiz for gerunds and infinitives requires the students to write a story using eight pairs of verbs.

The review is always distributed as homework before the class prior to the quiz itself. The students review the questions in class, usually putting sample answers on the board for discussion and offering alternatives for consideration. The actual quiz takes place during a fifty-minute period. All quizzes are open book, and students are able to use dictionaries and notes in addition to the class grammar text. I proctor each quiz and am available to answer questions.

For the on-line class, the review was assigned as homework approximately one week before the quiz took place. Because most of the quizzes required students to create their own sentences, an answer key did not seem useful. However, for the chapter quizzes on the passive voice and adjectival clauses, answers were fairly standard for all students. Therefore, I posted an answer key to the review. Since I felt that the review was optional, I did not require that answers be turned in to me.

Administering quizzes on-line raised several issues. Because the schedules of my students varied and because e-mail could be delayed, I established a twenty-four hour window for students to complete and return a quiz to me. The 24 unproctored hours gave on-line students much more time to complete a quiz and greater freedom to copy someone else's answers or ask for help, but I decided to rely on their honesty.

Two factors made me feel better about this decision. First, ESL courses at Ohlone college are non-transferable and non-degree applicable. This means that they can neither be used for transfer credits at a four-year institution nor applied toward an Associate of Arts degree at a community college. The only reason students would take ESL 148 on-line would be for their own benefit. If they chose to cheat, it would only impede their own progress. Second, while ESL 148 was part of the required sequence, passing ESL 148 did not permit students to exit the ESL program. Students were still required to pass ESL 149, Second Language Writing Skills. If they did not do their own work for ESL 148 on-line, it would become readily apparent in ESL 149, to the detriment of the student's progress.

I did decide, however, to require an in-person final exam to confirm the quality of each student's work. Their scores on the final exam should reflect

a competency similar to their quiz results. I required ID for students I did not already know personally.

To be available to answer the questions of on-line students, I scheduled chat sessions during the quiz periods. In addition, students were able to contact me by e-mail, which I read as often as possible during the quiz period. For the first quiz, I accessed my e-mail six times in the twenty-four-hour period.

In my in-person grammar/writing classes, I retype student essays to provide both corrections and a model for their future writing. I require students to recopy the corrected model by hand in order to provide kinesthetic reinforcement for their writing. Because of the use of electronic communication with my on-line students, this method was not practical. Both Chan (1998) and Tucker (1998), experienced on-line ESL instructors, put comments in the body of the essay itself to indicate corrections to student papers.

Following this procedure, I offset my in-line comments with asterisks or parentheses. The corrected essay was then e-mailed to students. This method was significantly slower than the method I was accustomed to, and I found that I sometimes needed several lines to explain or suggest a correction. It was easy to lose track of where the comment began and ended, and the comments often overwhelmed the text. At times, it was difficult to find an appropriate place to insert such comments.

I had already experimented with Martin Holmes' (1998) teaching tools such as *JCross* (a crossword generator) and *JCloze* (a cloze passage generator). In the course of doing so, I discovered that he also produced *Markin'*, a program for marking written work. I experimented with the program during Spring 1998, using it with a former student. The student responded favorably to the format and interactivity, and I ordered a registered version for use with my on-line class.

The *Markin'* program allows an instructor to set up a correction key, providing a short explanation or lengthy examples. Each error is assigned a button in the interface. When instructors locate errors, they highlight them and click on the button corresponding to the correction key explanation. The program creates a hyper-text link between the now highlighted text and the explanation. Free-form comments can also be made. After an error is highlighted, instructors click on the comment button and an empty text box opens up. They can then type in additional comments, and after clicking "OK," the highlighted text is hyper-text linked to the comment. The program also provides two global feedback text boxes for general comments on the writing and a box in which to enter an assignment grade.

When the text is corrected, instructors can upload the essay with corrections as a Web-page that can be e-mailed to the student as an

attachment or put up on the Internet. In either case, students can review the corrections using their Web browsers. Unlike in-line comments using e-mail, this method does not interrupt the flow of the original essay. Corrections are indicated by an underline, which is the convention used on most Web pages. Students can click on the link to access the comment and then click a "return to text" button to go back to where they were in the essay.

Class Communication

For the on-line program, the college wanted to provide a course management program offering mail, discussion lists, testing, and record keeping (see Appendix for web sites for materials and tools used in ESL 148 on-line class). *Top Class,* accessed through a Web browser, provided a full range of communication without the need always to use a specific computer. In addition, an Internet Relay Chat (IRC) server was available for real-time text-based communication, and links were provided on the distance education Web site to several free IRC programs available on the Internet.

In a traditional classroom, students make friends and converse informally about personal and classroom issues. While not sure that on-line students wanted to establish friendships with their on-line peers, I wanted to give them opportunities for communication that did not involve the instructor. Therefore, I decided that they should find out a little about each other in order to feel comfortable exchanging messages. For the first class assignment, I asked each student to write a short biographical statement that would be posted in a folder on *Top Class*. At the end of each biographical statement, I included the student's e-mail address and *Top Class* mail name. In this way, students could directly communicate with each other.

In addition, I set up discussion areas for three topics: technology, grammar, and general. Students could communicate with both the instructor and each other in these discussion areas. The technology area would handle questions about the technologies they were using including *Top Class* and IRC. The grammar area was for discussions of the grammar points being covered. The general area was for students to discuss whatever they wanted. In this last area, the instructor would participate as a peer, not an authority.

Students on campus have access to the instructor in person and via telephone, fax, e-mail, and U.S. mail. On-line students had the same modes of communication at their disposal except for in-person. However, they would have the additional opportunity for IRC and the use of discussion lists through *Top Class*. I felt confident that in this one area, on-line students had the same access to the instructor as their in-person peers.

Formative Evaluation

During the semester, I asked students for feedback about different aspects of the class such as the use of *Top Class,* their ability to handle attachments to e-mail, and their reaction to pair assignments. I also had a chance after their in-person final examination to engage them in an informal discussion of their experience with this on-line class.

Since this was the first semester that on-line classes were offered, there were some administrative problems related to getting students their passwords and usernames. However, once those were resolved, all seven of my students were able to log on to the Internet, use a Web address to access the Ohlone College *Top Class* home page, enter a username and password, and navigate the *Top Class* interface to read and post messages. One student commented that *Top Class* was very easy to access and navigate. Another less technologically sophisticated student said that she knew enough to do what she needed to do. However, she never learned to use several of the icons in *Top Class.*

Students were also able to download easily the programs needed for IRC. In our first on-line chat session, one student stated that she had her husband install it for her. Another student lamented that none of the chats had been scheduled at a time when she could participate. Overall, however, students were very comfortable with e-mail. Three of the students had e-mail accounts through an Internet Service Provider (ISP), while two had e-mail accounts accessed through the World Wide Web. Students knew how to cut and paste their homework from a word processing file into an e-mail, and one student regularly sent her homework as an attachment.

In evaluations of the on-line class, students indicated that classroom materials were "OK" or "good." While the students were content, I felt that most lessons were lifeless and evinced little of the energy and humor that I convey in the classroom. Students were not getting the full teaching experience from me. The one exception to this was the grammar units I developed independently of the class under the title *grammarONLINE.* I used both the unit on the passive voice and the unit on adjectival clauses. One of my on-line students described the *grammarONLINE* units as being very interesting and informative. He hoped that I would create similar units for the other grammar topics.

Homework exercises also provided little of the interactive exchange that I experience in my in-person classroom. The pair work was not successful. For the first assignment, I assigned partners, suggesting that they work individually and then e-mail their answers to each other to check. I provided only a final due date for the assignment. On the due date, two students e-mailed to tell me that their partner had never responded or had e-mailed

them at the last minute. I asked students to post their reactions to their pair-work experience on the discussion list, and the comments were not favorable.

For the second pair work assignment, I followed the advice of Boettcher (1997) and Hiltz (1995) and made the directions for the pair work more explicit. In addition to assigning partners, I assigned each student specific tasks to do and deadlines for e-mailing the other member of the pair, as well as for e-mailing the results of their collaboration to the instructor. In spite of the additional directions, several students did not pay attention to the deadlines. In addition, two students were basically inactive by that time but had not notified me. One confessed after the final examination that she really disliked pair and group work and did not find it beneficial.

I had hoped that the discussion lists would substitute for the interchange that occurs in the classroom when correcting homework assignments as a group. However, a total of only three questions were posted to the discussion lists during the semester. When asked in an end-of-the-semester e-mail why they had not participated in the discussion lists, three students revealed that they had not done most of the non-required homework. They all suggested that I have them submit more work for correction since they found my corrections and comments very helpful, and it provided motivation for them to do the work.

When asked why there were so few questions about grammar, I received varied responses. Three students acknowledged that they had asked few questions because they did little of the homework. One student said that asking questions by e-mail was very difficult because it was hard to explain what it was that she did not understand. Another student reported that the answers to the homework usually answered her questions. In response to a direct question about the effectiveness of using bold-face to highlight homework answers, the students responded that it definitely helped to isolate the answer from the rest of the sentence.

The reviews for quizzes suffered from much the same lack of interactivity as the homework. No questions were posted to the discussion lists. However, for different quizzes, different students e-mailed me their completed reviews for correction. Several students mentioned that I should put up answers for all reviews even though student answers would differ. They said the answers provided a better understanding of what was expected of them on the quiz and provided grammatical examples for further study.

The quizzes went very smoothly. Students received their quizzes by e-mail without problem and generally submitted them within the 24-hour deadline. One student did not read the deadline clearly and submitted a quiz late after an e-mail prompting from me. One quiz came in by fax when a student's e-mail failed.

One of the original purposes of incorporating IRC was to provide a real-time environment in which students could ask questions about their quizzes. The first chat session was held in the evening during the 24-hour window for the first quiz. Two students participated that evening, but neither asked questions about the quiz. Both were interested in trying out the technology, and the exchanges were primarily about downloading software and installing the chat program. The second chat session was held in the early afternoon of the third 24-hour quiz period in order to accommodate students who were unable to log in at night. No students participated during the two-hour session.

As a result of this, the third session was scheduled in the evening of the fourth quiz period. Two students participated, including one student who had participated in the first session. Because it was the evening of national elections, the chat session centered on ballot propositions and a discussion of the ethics of gambling. Of the three chat sessions, this one was the most engaging and interesting. Only three chat sessions were held instead of the originally envisioned six. In the two sessions where there were student participants, no one had any questions about the quiz, my primary reason for holding the chat sessions. In addition, because of students' schedules, all of the chat sessions needed to be at night. Because of my own teaching schedule, this was not possible for all six quiz periods.

Markin' worked well for correcting essays. After the first essay, I used *Markin'* to create a Web-page for each essay with hypertext links from the text to explanations of errors. I generated the Web pages for each student and e-mailed them as attachments. Two students were unable to view Web pages directly in their e-mail programs because they were using an earlier version of a Web browser (which did not support this capability) or a dedicated e-mail program (such as *Eudora*) that did not allow HTML-formatted e-mail to be viewed. Several of the students did not know how to save attachments for viewing offline. Therefore, I uploaded the Web pages of corrected essays to my directory on the instructional server and e-mailed the students the Web addresses for viewing their work.

While this dual method of delivery solved the access problem, one student told me that the explanations were insufficient in guiding her towards informed correction of her papers. In fact, her revisions were excellent. The only area she did not understand was the use of articles, a problematic grammar point for most second language learners. However, her perception that the explanations in general were not sufficient was important to note. In talking to another student after the final examination, I found out that she had no trouble loading the corrected essay into her Web browser. However, she never understood that the blue underlined words were links, so she tried to correct her mistakes without the benefit of the explanations.

Communication between students and me was good throughout the semester. I answered all e-mails within 24 hours, including ones received on the weekend. Students expressed general satisfaction with the ease of contact. They e-mailed me in response to questions or to submit homework, but there was little student-initiated communication. Students explained this by saying that they had few questions they needed answered, or that they did not know how to phrase their questions. There was also little e-mail communication between students except for the two pair-work exercises. Students also commented that they missed the communication that takes place between students in a classroom.

One aspect of communication that I, as the instructor, did not like was the variety of ways in which I could receive e-mails on-line. In addition to my school e-mail, there was the dedicated e-mail in *Top Class*, which one of the students used regularly. There was also my home e-mail account, which I accidentally used at one point and which students ended up using from time to time instead of my school account. As a result, instead of having a single mailbox, I regularly had to check all three mailboxes. Furthermore, e-mails that I received at school were not accessible from home and vice-versa, thus delaying my responses to student questions.

Two of the students took classes on campus, and one of them used that opportunity to submit assignments and ask additional questions. Students also used the fax to submit work, and one student used the telephone when her ISP was down and she could not access her own e-mail.

Two students who had previously taken my ESL classes in person were asked after the final examination to compare the classroom experience with the on-line experience. They commented that both classes were very useful and stressed the convenience of the on-line course. When asked whether one should take a classroom course rather than an on-line class if it is convenient to do so, one of them remarked that good students would study hard and do well regardless of whether they were taking a classroom course or a course on-line. The other said that the in-person class was generally better because attendance in class forced students to stay on top of assignments.

Recommendations for Improving the On-line Class

While the students had little trouble overall with the technology involved in the class, it was clear they needed more initial guidance. Two students mentioned that they took the class to learn more about the Internet. For this reason, I would make the orientation session at the start of the semester more comprehensive. In addition to introducing the students to the *Top Class* interface, I would engage them in activities

using its various features. For example, during the orientation, students could send mail to each other through *Top Class*, post to a discussion list, and add a posting to an existing discussion topic. They could engage in IRC. Finally, they could look at a sample essay corrected using *Markin'* to see how the links worked.

The students were not particularly comfortable working together or communicating with each other on-line because they did not know each other. While the introductions on-line were useful, one student suggested that I add one more in-person meeting early in the semester. I could use the meeting to check on how well the students were dealing with the technology and to give the students a second chance to meet each other. A mixed social and instructional atmosphere might be appropriate.

Feedback on the interactive Web-based units I developed for the passive voice and adjectival clauses was very positive. Although the development of each unit is very time intensive, I would like to create such units for each grammatical topic that I teach.

Students suggested that more homework be submitted. While it would be impossible to grade all exercises in the book, in the future I plan to have at least one exercise submitted per week. In designing the course, one aspect I failed to replicate was the feedback on student comprehension that I receive in the classroom by watching student faces or listening to the hesitancy in their answers. For my on-line students, the only way to ascertain that they are keeping up and comprehending the lesson materials would be to see and evaluate more of their work.

The discussion lists and IRC offer the means to provide feedback to the entire class as well as opportunities for informal communication and community building. However, based on my own experience and that of Chan (1998), I would provide more direction for both of these venues. I would begin by having students contribute on directed topics as part of their participation in the class. As the semester proceeds, I would ask students to suggest further topics. In the second in-person meeting I would provide notes on how to ask questions about grammar.

To improve upon *Markin'*, I would review my explanations and add more examples to clarify difficult topics, cross referencing explanations with sections of the class text to provide students with additional resources. Showing an example of a paper corrected using *Markin'* at the orientation would insure that students knew how to access the feedback.

I touched upon the low enrollments for non-degree-applicable ESL courses and the problem with attrition earlier. Attrition is a problem for all on-line classes. However, with regards to low enrollment, creative solutions are needed in order to offer an on-line ESL course successfully. In my case, I reached an agreement with my area dean to combine the enrollment for

the spring course with an anticipated under-twenty enrollment for the following semester and agreed to be paid for only one course.

Conclusion

While the overall experience with this on-line class was positive, both from the instructor's and the students' perspectives, I was unable to replicate the experience of my in-person classroom with my on-line class. The transmission of information was quite successful, and test taking and essay correction worked well. However, aspects of the classroom that went beyond reading and writing did not transfer well.

My on-line class lacked the motivation that comes from active engagement between learners and the instructor. Students were able to ask questions, but writing out these questions was difficult. Additionally, their questions were asked in isolation and with a time-delay between asking and receiving an answer. On-line students also failed to receive the dynamic presentation of material that normally occurs in the classroom, where they are actively engaged in the process. On-line students received the same information but in a static page of notes.

The Web-based presentations in my *grammarONLINE* units were the closest approximation to my in-class lessons. They provided a level of interactivity and responsiveness that was absent from a mere page of notes. However, each of the two units took a minimum of 40 hours to develop. This type of materials creation is for the enthusiastic hobbyist, not for normal classroom teachers. They do not have the time to develop such materials to make their classes more interactive and stimulating.

One way in which on-line classes could be made more interactive would be via software that could aid an instructor in developing more interactive teaching materials that function well even with today's limited modem speeds. Text can be interactive, as the favorable response to my on-line grammar units shows, but current software is not optimized to produce Web sites of this type.

Video and audio components would also provide an added degree of interactivity and dynamism to an on-line course. Development of such components take time, but they could be taken directly from what the instructor already does in the classroom using a video-camera or a tape-recorder. However, current bandwidth limitations for home users of the Internet makes extensive use of these media impractical. In the long-term, the bandwidth for home access needs to be greatly improved to permit satisfactory Internet access to audio and video. In the meantime, perhaps a hybrid course could be developed involving video-taped lectures and the use of the Internet for communication.

In closing, ESL professionals eager to learn about offering on-line ESL courses themselves should note the following points:

First, be prepared for a lot of work getting your materials on-line. While software continues to improve portability of documents to the Web, the instructor still needs to consider what is appropriate and most effective. The best on-line materials were those that took me hours to prepare. At the same time, software is making it easier and easier for an instructor with basic computer knowledge to create Web documents. My knowledge of HTML (the coding language used in formatting Web pages) helped me in refining my on-line documents. However, many teachers, including some of my on-line colleagues at Ohlone College who have no knowledge of HTML, are creating Web documents with such user-friendly graphical user interface programs as *Microsoft FrontPage*, *Adobe PageMill*, and *Netscape Composer* (see Appendix).

Second, be prepared to make a long-term commitment and to get a long-term commitment from your institution. Enrollments for non-degree-applicable-credit on-line ESL courses may begin low and increase gradually with each semester. Third, be prepared to spend a lot of time communicating and responding to student work via e-mail and discussion lists in addition to preparing materials and posting for on-line delivery.

Finally, do not expect that your on-line class will approach the interactivity and excitement of your in-person classroom. New technologies are on the way to help us better approximate the in-person experience, but in the meantime, be prepared to sacrifice some of the benefits of the in-person classroom for the convenience in delivery that on-line classes offer our students.

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Appendix
URLs for Materials and Tools Used in ESL 148 On-line Class

Adobe Pagemill:
http://www.adobe.com/

Front Page:
http:/www.microsoft.com/frontpage/

grammarONLINE (ancillary grammar units):
http://on-line.ohlone.cc.ca.us/~mlieu.

Internet Relay Chat:
http://mirc.com/

Mark Lieu's Homepage:
http://www.ohlone.cc.ca.us/people/mlieu.

Netscape Composer:
http://netscape.com

On-line information and publicity for *ESL 148 On-line:*
http://www.ohlone.cc.ca.us/people/mlieu/148on-line.html.

Sample of corrected student essays:
http://on-line.ohlone.cc.ca.us/~mlieu/esl148/sample.html.

Top Class:
http://www.wbtsystems.com/

The CATESOL Journal

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Teaching English as a Sexist Language? Recommendations for Promoting Gender Equity

■ **It has been a quarter of a century since the passing of Title IX (1972) which barred sex discrimination in educational programs receiving federal funding. This federal action, combined with an interest in determining to what extent education reproduces gender inequality, prompted a number of studies and intervention programs. Ten years after Title IX, a disturbing report revealed how subtle and consistent acts by college faculty left women at a distinct disadvantage (Hall, 1982). This was further supported by the Sadkers' research, which found that the students least likely to receive attention were minority females (Sadker & Sadker, 1994). This suggests that female ESL students are potentially the most vulnerable to sexism in education. This paper provides a brief survey of research on sexism in education, reviews studies that focus on gender in ELT, and offers five recommendations to facilitate the recognition and reduction of sexism in ELT.**

It has been over a quarter of a century since the passage of Title IX, the Education Amendment of 1972, stating that discrimination on the basis of sex is illegal in any educational program receiving federal funding. This federal action, combined with an interest in determining to what extent education reproduces gender inequality, prompted a number of studies and intervention programs to promote gender equity, which is defined by Women's Educational Equity Act (WEEA) as "a set of actions, attitudes and assumptions that provide opportunities and create

expectations about individuals, regardless of gender" (*http://www.edu.org/womensequity/genderdef.html).*

How has this legislation changed conditions in classrooms across the nation? What impact has this concern for gender equity had on research in ESL/EFL classrooms? What can language teachers do to recognize and reduce gender bias (i.e., the often unintentional behavior based on the assumption that one sex is better than the other is)? This paper discusses the research of the impact of Title IX and concludes with five recommendations for teachers interested in promoting gender equity.

What about the Boys?

In the wake of the student shootings in Littleton, Colorado, it is important to note that gender equity is not "for girls only" and that eliminating gender bias and stereotyping benefits both male and female students. Sadker and Sadker (1994) state:

> Gender bias is a two-edged sword. Girls are shortchanged, but males pay a price as well. Raised to be active, aggressive, and independent, boys enter schools that seem to want them to be quiet, passive, and conforming. In an uneasy compromise, many walk a tightrope between compliance and rebellion. (pp. 197-198)

These authors contend that boys "confront frozen boundaries of the male role at every turn of school life. They grow up learning lines and practicing moves from a timeworn script: Be cool, don't show emotion, repress feelings, be aggressive, compete and win" (p. 220). Sadker and Sadker thus conclude that "until gender equity becomes a value promoted in every aspect of school, boys as victims of their own miseducation, [*sic*] will grow up to be troubled men" (p. 225).

Pollack (1998), author of *Real Boys: Rescuing our Sons from the Myths of Boyhood,* studied hundreds of adolescent boys and concludes that "perhaps the most traumatizing and dangerous injunction thrust on boys and men is the literal gender straightjacket that prohibits boys from expressing feelings or urges seen (mistakenly) as 'feminine'—dependence, warmth, empathy" (p. 24). Pollack suggests we can help boys by consciously working to eliminate gender stereotypes from our thinking and language. Garbarino (1999), in his timely book *Lost Boys: Why Our Sons Turn Violent and How We Can Save Them*, agrees and states that helping boys develop empathy is vital to preventing violence in young men.

Gender (In)Equity in Education

With the passage of Title IX, many teachers, researchers, and parents looked forward to: the elimination of sexist language, materials, and curriculum; higher teacher expectations for females; less sex segregation in fields of study for males and females; and more substantial teacher interactions with female students. One decade after the passage of Title IX, an important document that has since been referred to as the "chilly climate report" (Hall & Sandler, 1982) revealed how subtle and consistent acts by college faculty were continuing to leave women at a distinct disadvantage. This report compiled data from empirical studies of post-secondary classrooms, reports, surveys, and individual responses to a "Call for Information" questionnaire. The researchers found that in numerous studies both male and female faculty were ignoring and interrupting female students, maintaining physical distance from them, avoiding eye contact with them, and offering little guidance or criticism to them.

Two decades after the passage of Title IX, the American Association of University Women (AAUW) (1992) issued a report reviewing over 1,300 studies and found continuing evidence of gender bias in schools across the United States. One reason gender bias in classrooms persists despite federal legislation prohibiting it is that much of the bias is unintentional and goes unnoticed. The AAUW report demonstrated that teachers, quite unintentionally, give more and better attention to male students by calling on them more, waiting longer for their responses, and responding to them with more penetrating, less superficial remarks.

One might ask, "If this is true, why are so many boys not achieving in school?" *Failing at Fairness* (Sadker & Sadker, 1994) contains accounts from ten years of research and thousands of observations in schools all over the nation; it finds that although many boys get the lion's share of teacher attention and rise to the top of the class, many others also land on the bottom and are more likely to fail, miss promotion, or drop out.

In an earlier article in *Phi Delta Kapppan* (1986), Sadker and Sadker report on field research conducted in 46 classrooms of academic and professional disciplines at American University. Using data collected from the post-secondary version of the INTEREST Observation system, the authors demonstrated that the same behavior that was found in primary and secondary classrooms was also found in colleges and universities, i.e., male students receive significantly more attention, and sex bias persists. Sadker and Sadker state four conclusions of their research: (1) Male students receive more attention from teachers and are given more time to talk in classrooms. Educators are generally unaware of the presence or the impact of this bias. (2) Brief but focused training can reduce or eliminate sex bias from class-

room interaction. (3) Increasing equity in classroom interaction increases the effectiveness of the teacher as well. (4) Equity and effectiveness are not competing concerns: they are complementary (p. 512).

The continued inequitable nature of schools was the subject of a 1997 report, "Title IX at 25: Report Card on Gender Equity," issued by the National Coalition for Women and Girls in Education (NCWGE). This report gave schools a "C" average ("C" meaning "some progress: some barriers addressed, but more improvement necessary"). Specifically, the grades awarded in this report were:

Access to higher education	B-	Athletics	C
Career education	C	Employment	C-
Learning environment	C-	Math and Science	C+
Sexual harassment	D+	Standardized testing	C
Treatment of pregnant and parenting students	C+		(p. 1)

Under each category, the report lists problems before Title IX, progress to date, and improvements needed. Under "Learning Environment," it states:

> Still, female students typically get less attention, encouragement, praise, and criticism, than male students do. Congress should reinstate federal efforts to provide schools with materials and strategies to improve the classroom climate. Educators should continue receiving training to overcome bias and discriminatory practices in classrooms. (p. 3)

Stromquist (1993) examines and discusses federal legislation on gender inequalities. She examines the impact of three pieces of legislation: Title IX of the Educational Amendments Act of 1972 (*United States at Large 1972*, 1973); the Women's Educational Equity Act (WEEA) passed in 1974 (*U.S. Code Congressional and Administrative News 1974*, 1975); and parts of the Vocational Education Act (VEA) of 1976 (*U.S. Code Congressional and Administrative News 1976*, 1977). Stromquist focuses on six elements of the educational system that are key to attaining sex equity: (1) access to schooling; (2) school textbooks; (3) curriculum content; (4) provision of pre- and in-service training to teachers; (5) presence of women as administrators and professors in educational institutions; and (6) provision of incentives and supportive measures for girls.

Stromquist identifies Title IX, "the most comprehensive educational legislation to date," (p.381) as a coercive component of sex equity legislation in that it acts in punitive ways, cutting federal funds if discrimination is revealed. The other two pieces of legislation (WEEA, VEA) are supportive

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components in that they offer financial and technical assistance to increase gender equity in education. Stromquist's (1993) evaluation goes beyond the recommendations made in the NCWGE (1997) report and looks at problems of implementation such as "limited funding, weak enforcement, and reliance on voluntary efforts by educational institutions," concluding that these factors reveal "the federal government has played a reluctant and primarily symbolic role in efforts to attain gender equity" (p. 379).

It has been demonstrated that pre- and in-service teacher training programs can be effective in reducing gender bias (AAUW, 1992; Sadker & Sadker, 1994). Crawford (1989) reported that an informational awareness session lasting only one hour was not enough to reduce gender bias in K-12 teachers; however, Long (1986) found that a two-and-a-half day workshop produced significant changes in college teacher-student interactions. Bonder (1992) found some degree of attitudinal change in the post in-service questionnaires as well as the in-depth interviews conducted eight months after an in-service in Argentina. This in-service consisted of eight group meetings in which teachers discussed how gender related to research findings, myths, stereotypes, statistical data, laws, images in the mass media, the process of socialization, and educational outcomes. Bonder concludes that teachers play a key role in transmitting gender ideologies.

Despite the literally thousands of grants and programs available and the large amount of material produced in the last two decades (see Stitt, 1994 for an annotated bibliography), there still appears to be a widespread lack of awareness of gender equity issues in education. Sanders (1996) laments this situation and notes that "We have been concentrating on increasing the supply of materials, but the demand for them has not grown correspondingly" (p. 215). She further hypothesizes that workshops over the past two decades may not have been as successful as they could have been may be due to the inadequate length of the workshops, (as was seen in Crawford's study), the lack of concentration on solutions in the workshops, and the lack of follow up. Sanders admits however, that the question of whether gender equity in education can be improved by changing the attitudes and behaviors of educators while not addressing the cause of male dominance in the larger society is one that needs to be addressed.

Gender Equity in ESL/EFL Classrooms

Sadker and Sadker (1994) found that the students least likely to receive attention were minority females, which suggests that female ESL students are particularly vulnerable to gender bias. In spite of this, only a few studies have been conducted on gender bias in English language teaching. A few studies in the 1970s and 1980s analyzed textbooks for sexist content and

language (Hartman & Judd, 1978; Porreca, 1984). In the 1990s, a few studies were conducted on gender bias in student-teacher and teacher-student interaction in both ESL classrooms (Yepez 1994, 1990) and second language classrooms (Sunderland 1998). Sunderland (1994), the editor of *Exploring Gender: Questions and Implications for English Language Education* (the only collection of articles that deals specifically with gender and English language teaching [ELT]) raises the question of the possible negative effect that current ESL communicative methodology may have on female ESL students. She posits that asymmetry of gender roles in discourse (in this case the situation where males monopolize the conversation) may occur more when communicative or learner-centered methodology is used (p. 7). Thus, the female ESL student may be vulnerable to gender bias in the ESL classroom in part due to current pedagogy. Sunderland states that it is unclear whether differential treatment exists in EFL classes, because so few studies have been conducted on this population. She goes on to say that quantitative approaches (i.e., counting and categorizing the responses of teachers and students) may not be sufficient to establish the causes or effects of gender bias and that such studies should be complemented by more qualitative analysis.

Vandrick (1999a), in her article "The Case for More Research on Female Students in the ESL/EFL Classroom," states that "fairness dictates that it is time for the field of ESL/EFL to further explore these issues" (p. 16). She quotes Willet (1996), who notes the dearth of research on gender in ELT and asks:

> If gender is so ubiquitous [in negotiating social relations] why has the TESOL profession taken so long to examine gender?...Is it that TESOL theorists are merely interested in other topics, having conceptualized language use and language learning as primarily cognitive processes rather than social processes...? Do some researchers avoid topics such as gender, race, ethnicity and class in order to stay out of identity politics? (p. 344)

Recommendations for Recognizing and Reducing Gender Bias

Although gender issues have largely been ignored in ESL/EFL classrooms, the good news is that we can rectify the situation. I am recommending the following five suggestions gleaned from the literature on gender equity and my own experience.

As a cautionary note, being culturally sensitive while trying to become gender-sensitive is a difficult but necessary balancing act. Consider the ramifications these recommendations may have of the lives of your students and their families. To avoid imposing my own cultural

preconceptions on my students, I have found it helpful to create activities that allow students to discover gender inequalities for themselves. I then elicit from them how gender equity in education can benefit both female and male students. The following recommendations for recognizing and reducing gender bias may also prove helpful.

Read the Research

Become familiar with research on gender equity in education. Hundreds of articles and several books that can help teachers create a more gender-equitable environment are available (See AAUW, 1992; Acker, 1994; Gabriel & Smithson, 1990; McCracken & Appleby, 1992; Sadker & Sadker, 1994; Wilkinson & Marrett, 1985). Many of the suggestions for non-ELT classrooms may also prove to be relevant for the second language classroom (for resources related to ELT see Sunderland, 1992, 1994, 1996, 1998; Tannen, 1996; Vandrick, 1994, 1995, 1998, 1999a, 1999b). For a list of almost 200 Web sites related to gender equity in education, see *http://www.edc.org/WomensEquity/links/bestdone.html.*

Attend conferences and workshops and go to sessions focusing on gender or arrange for gender equity workshops to be conducted on your campus.

Subscribe to the Educational Equity Discussion List (EDEQUITY), a forum for teachers and researchers to share information on the World Wide Web at: *http://www.edc.org/WomensEquity/edequity/index.html.*

Revise Your Materials

Inspect the books and class handouts you are using for: (1) sexist language such as masculine pronouns and nouns that are intended generically; (2) male firstness such as his and her, male and female, husband and wife; (3) invisibility of women, (i.e., fewer female than male characters in the content and pictures); (4) occupational stereotyping in terms of type and range of jobs for females and males; (5) relationship stereotyping such as women being portrayed mostly in their relation to others (e.g., wives or mothers) while men are mostly portrayed as individuals; (6) characteristic stereotyping such as having emotional female characters and stoic male characters. Include students in finding sexist language or stereotyping, writing the publishers and complaining, and rewriting the sexist portions in a nonsexist manner. If women or men are invisible, find materials to compensate for the invisibility.

Reflect on Classroom Practices

Consider changes that may help students participate equally by looking at the use of classroom time. Devise a system to call on students equally.

One method is to put students' names on cards and call out names as they appear in the stack. Waiting longer for responses may increase gender equity if female students need longer to respond.

Videotape the class or have a student or colleague keep track of the number of times you speak to males and females. Determine whether your responses to males and females correspond to the ratio of male and females in the class. When analyzing verbal responses, you may consider the number of times students are called on, the length of time in discussion, and the depth and type of content. Be aware of how the class handles student contributions. Was one group of students interrupted, ignored, dismissed, and not called on by name more than another? Also, consider the learning style preferences of all your students.

Try to use a variety of methods such as collaborative work or group quizzes. When the students are in small groups, ensure that females and males take turns at leadership positions and experiment with same-sex and mixed-sex small groups. Finally, ask your students to be on the lookout for sexism in the class. Periodically have students give you anonymous written feedback pointing out sexist language in your lectures, students responses, classroom materials, and ways nonverbal responses may favor males or females.

Reach Beyond the Classroom

Encourage students to continue their investigation outside the classroom. Have students evaluate other classrooms, textbooks, and conversations for sexism. Ask them to recall the entrance test they took, the counseling they received, the financial aid opportunities they were offered, and scrutinize these experiences for sexist practices. Suggest that students look into how jobs are divided along male and female lines on campus and in their homes. Assign different groups to look at television, radio, newspaper, the cinema, music, stores, and businesses for examples of sexism.

Research Gender Yourself

Conduct action research with your colleagues and/or students in order to answer some of the questions raised in the preliminary investigations of your textbooks, classrooms, and campus. Action research is the systematic collection and analysis of data conducted by classroom teachers on an area of their own teaching that they would like to investigate and improve. It is often collaborative and involves a continuing cyclical process of planning, acting, observing, and reflecting. Learn more about action research and read several case studies (see Altrichter, Posch & Somekh, 1993; Atweh, Kemmis & Weeks, 1998; Hollingsworth, 1997; Hopkins, 1993; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988; McNiff, Lomax, & Whitehead, 1996; McTaggart, 1997;

Noffke & Stevenson, 1995; Wallace, 1998). Query colleagues to determine whether there is interest in forming an action research support group and begin to develop a community of researchers committed to investigating classroom practices and teacher effectiveness. Ask about funding for the project, as education equity grants may be available.

Conclusion

Despite the federal legislation of Title IX, research has shown that far from being neutral sites of learning, schools (from preschool to graduate school) reinforce and reproduce male dominance in numerous subtle practices that can be detrimental to both male and female students. The specific incidents of gender inequity found in K-12 and college classrooms in the United States are: sexist language, materials, and curriculum; lower teacher expectations for girls and women; sex segregation in fields of study; and fewer and less substantial teacher-student interactions with girls and women.

In ESL classrooms, if male students coming from male-dominated cultures use turn-taking and attention-getting devices to dominate the teacher's time, the female students' opportunities to speak may be further reduced. This may be exacerbated by current communicative methodology, which relies on student-centered activities. However, this tendency remains undocumented as few studies on gender equity have been conducted in ESL/EFL classrooms.

In summation, ESL teachers can promote gender equity in their classes and on their campuses by reviewing research on gender equity, revising their materials to be more gender inclusive, reflecting on their classroom practices to insure that they are equitable, and reaching beyond the classroom by having students investigate sexist practices in society. Finally, ESL teachers can develop research communities on their campuses by forming action research support groups where colleagues can collaborate, encourage, and challenge one another in their quest for gender equity.

Author

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New Dialogues in Mainstream/ ESL Teacher Collaboration

■ **The purpose of this article is to identify some of the social, instructional, and administrative processes that both marginalize and enhance collaboration between ESL teachers and mainstream instructors and administrators. The article documents the verbal and written interactions between one ESL teacher and twelve mainstream instructors and administrators within an elementary school "pull-out" ESL program. Its findings reveal that the ESL teacher operates as a "marginal" member of many of the social, instructional, and administrative events within the school. The implications for practice suggest opening new dialogues between ESL and mainstream teachers that include and dignify the expertise of the ESL teacher in faculty, department, and committee meetings.**

Problems regarding collaboration with mainstream faculty and administrators are familiar to many ESL teachers and have been documented in the literature (Teemant, Berhnhardt & Rodríguez-Muñoz, 1997). The unique demands placed on "pull-out" ESL instructors, however, deserve special attention. Unlike ESL teachers who work in self-contained classrooms, pull-out ESL teachers are specialists whose students spend the majority of their time in mainstream classrooms. Depending upon grade level and upon the particular circumstances within their districts, these teachers may face a variety of challenges. Some may shuttle from school to school and may not even be assigned a permanent classroom. Others may teach students whose grade levels range from elementary to senior high and thus must offer supplementary content instruction in a number of areas and at a variety of levels. All of these challenges are only made more difficult by

the limited amount of time most pull-out ESL teachers have been allotted to spend with their students.

To function effectively as ESL instructors, pull-out ESL teachers must be able to establish collaborative relationships with mainstream teachers and administrators. Establishing regular times to meet with mainstream instructors, providing in-service workshops, and participating in mainstream meetings are just some of the activities intended to bridge the gap between the limited training in ESL pedagogy mainstream instructors may have and the specialized instruction ESL students require. The purpose of this article is to explore some of the problems that pull-out ESL teachers have encountered when initiating these activities and to suggest some solutions to the problems of ESL/mainstream instructor collaboration in general.

Data drawn from the efforts of one elementary school pull-out ESL teacher to establish collaborative relationships with the mainstream faculty and administration are examined and reveal the marginal role of ESL teachers in the mainstream. A discussion of the implications this may have on instruction of ESL students and program services follows and is accompanied by recommendations for how all ESL teachers, whether working in a pull-out program or not, can more effectively collaborate with the mainstream.

ESL Instruction in Coal Creek

Coal Creek School District (the names of all places and people are pseudonyms) began offering services for ESL students in 1992, four years before Mrs. Wordsworth was hired. Because the district was unable to find a certified ESL instructor to head the program, a stream of instructors who had never received formal training in ESL pedagogy taught the approximately 35 ESL students each year at Smith Elementary and Jacob Senior High. The teachers were part-time, certified in different areas, and, without exception, left after a few years when an opportunity opened in their mainstream discipline. Indeed, at least two members of the mainstream faculty at Smith Elementary, the focus of data collection for this article, found their way into their position via the ESL teaching route.

In their wake, they left a few English grammar books intended for native speakers, a songbook, some flash cards, and some board games for Mrs. Wordsworth. As documents describing the program either for the parents or for the mainstream faculty and administrators were outdated or simply missing, Mrs. Wordsworth surmised that only minimal communication between the past ESL teachers, the mainstream faculty and administrators, and the parents took place. Student files were present as the state required, but objectives for ESL instruction had not been com-

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pleted. Other documents indicated that assessment had relied on the past ESL teachers' judgments of oral and written work exclusively, without the aid of standardized tests.

Despite the program's underdeveloped resources, Mrs. Wordsworth initially viewed her position with optimism. She was, after all, the first certified ESL teacher in the district with the expertise to create a high quality program. She set two goals for her first year. First, she would create proper testing and instructional materials for her students. The grammar books intended for native speakers and the flashcards would not suffice. Instead, she would have to create sophisticated materials aimed at developmentally appropriate instruction and the special needs of ESL students. Next, she would increase communication with the mainstream faculty and administrators by providing in-service training, joining mainstream committees, and establishing regular times to meet. She hoped that greater awareness on the part of the mainstream instructors and administration concerning the issues central to ESL students' lives would emerge from this.

Four years after beginning her position in Coal Creek, Mrs. Wordsworth had not accomplished either of her goals. She described herself as the "district nemesis" and did not know why her efforts had failed. While she had not given up hope for developing a thriving program, she had taken the attitude that there was little more that she could do to help. I joined her as a researcher at this stage and spent two years analyzing her verbal and written interactions with twelve mainstream instructors and school administrators.

Through observations and interviews, I hoped to learn not only why she had failed in her efforts to collaborate with the mainstream faculty but also the nature of her interactions. I formed two questions to guide my research: First, "What was the nature of her conversations/interactions with the mainstream faculty and administration?" Second, "What could be learned from her experience that would help others to facilitate more effective collaborative efforts with the mainstream?" In time, the answers to these questions provided a composite of the connection between one ESL teacher and a mainstream faculty, and regularities surfaced that can be formed into a theory.

Collaborating from the sidelines

I investigated the first question by conducting observations of Mrs. Wordsworth's interactions with mainstream instructors and follow-up interviews with both parties. When it was not possible to observe interactions, Mrs. Wordsworth took notes and reported her experiences during a weekly taped interview. In time, the findings revealed an ESL teacher who was not

the "district nemesis" or "outcast" as she had once described herself. Instead, a more complicated picture emerged. On one hand, she was a faculty member, i.e., a specialist that many of the mainstream instructors came to for advice regarding the instruction of the ESL students in their classes. It was not unusual to see her interact with three or four teachers a day, dispensing advice on the language and social development of various ESL students. When the program at Smith was reviewed by the state, the district administrators and the principal relied on her to represent the program. She explained how testing, finances, and curriculum were organized within the program. She held their respect.

On the other hand, there was also evidence to support her claim of being an outsider in the mainstream community. A journal she kept of her interactions with the mainstream faculty recorded the fact that she had never once succeeded in planning a meeting with a mainstream instructor, despite her efforts to do so. All of her communication took place, in her own words, "on the run or in between classes." She met teachers in the halls, during recesses, or at lunch. She was not a part of the parent or curriculum committees, nor was she a part of the grade level meetings. In fact, because of conflicting schedules generated from working at two different schools, she could not attend most faculty meetings at Smith. When she did attempt to join one of these groups, serve on a committee, or establish a path towards collaboration with the mainstream, it was often met with resistance, indifference, and even anger.

Below are just two examples of her efforts to join the mainstream community. The first occurred between the district testing coordinator and Mrs. Wordsworth. The discussion concerned whether or not two ESL students' scores would be included in the Washington Assessment of Student Learning (WASL), the state's testing reports. Teachers on the committee resisted the idea, arguing that it would lower the district's overall scores and not give an accurate measure of the native English speaking students' achievement. Mrs. Wordsworth believed that the ESL students' scores represented the diversity of the district and should be included. Moreover, the students were required to take the exam. Both had attended school in the United States for more than one year, and both had advanced beyond level one in the ESL program.

The committee later met privately to resolve the issue, but it was not until two days later that Mrs. Wordsworth learned of this meeting during the course of a short conversation with the testing coordinator. While the testing coordinator eventually included the scores of the ESL students, his apathy towards Mrs. Wordsworth's efforts is apparent:

Mrs. Wordsworth:	You know, we need to think about the assessment.
Testing Coordinator:	Oh, (pause) we already had a meeting and went over everything.
Mrs. Wordsworth:	When was that?
Testing Coordinator:	A couple of days ago
Mrs. Wordsworth:	O.K. Could I get the materials I need then, for the ESL students?
Testing Coordinator:	Well, I only have part of the copy. Maybe you could get the rest from one of the English teachers.
Mrs. Wordsworth:	O.K. What about the accommodation plan for the ESL students? How do you want to set that up?
Testing Coordinator:	Accommodation plan, I don't care. You just take the tests and do whatever you want.

The second example is taken from a discussion following an in-service meeting in which Mrs. Wordsworth explained how to use a large set of materials she had developed for the mainstream instructors to use with ESL students in the mainstream classroom.

Mrs. Wordsworth:	I hope you enjoyed the recent in-service.
Dr. Billings:	Well, it was fine, but I hope you don't expect me to do your job now.

Despite the fact that there were enough materials to use for every grade and all subjects, a sign-up sheet kept next to the cabinet where the materials were stored indicated that in three years no one ever checked out any of the materials. Eventually, the materials were thrown out.

While these are only a few examples of how Mrs. Wordsworth's efforts were thwarted by the mainstream, they represent what for many pull-out ESL teachers is becoming an increasingly common experience. Like Mrs. Wordsworth, such teachers are often given membership in mainstream discussions and meetings for their specialized knowledge of the issues in ESL students' lives, yet are separated from the mainstream by their unique instructional interests, students, and programmatic demands. They find themselves interacting as neither members nor outcasts of the mainstream. Somewhere in the middle, they remain on the sidelines when it comes to being able to affect the instruction of their own students.

For Mrs. Wordsworth, the message here is clear. While she was given the authority to answer the questions of state officials evaluating the program, grants and testing decisions were quickly taken from her control.

Mainstream instructors came to her for her unique knowledge of second language acquisition, yet they refused to establish formal collaborative efforts. All meetings were spontaneous and in response to a problem raised by the mainstream faculty. When she attempted to establish membership on committees and in special groups, she was brushed off despite the direct bearing her presence and input would have had on the instruction of the ESL students.

The "failure to belong fully to a positive reference group," operating in the role of neither member nor outcast in a reference group (in this case the mainstream) has been termed social marginality (Billson, 1982, p. 185). The specific features of this marginality were identified by Simmel (1950), who used the concept of the "stranger" to describe an individual who is neither a member nor an outcast of the reference group. One's identity as a stranger rests upon both one's presence and involvement with the reference group as well as one's independence and absence from it. Later, the concept of marginalization was expanded and used to describe social and academic forces in the lives of ESL students (Fu, 1995; Hakuta, Ferdman & Diaz, 1987; Matute-Bianchi, 1986; Trueba, 1984), programs (Grey, 1991) and teachers (Case, 1998).

The source of Mrs. Wordsworth's marginal position and of other ESL teachers working in similar circumstances stems from the local politics surrounding ESL programs. The district's decision to begin pull-out ESL instruction without certified instructors left Mrs. Wordsworth not only with an underdeveloped program but also with a broken connection to the mainstream. The classic problems associated with pull-out ESL instruction thus emerged.

As students were taken from their mainstream classrooms for ESL instruction, their time in the mainstream classroom came to be viewed as a waiting period for language proficiency to emerge. ESL instruction seemed of little importance. Mainstream instructors would bring Mrs. Wordsworth their questions, concerns, and complaints about the ESL students, but they would not agree to regularly scheduled meetings. They would invite her to join various committees, but prevent her from participating meaningfully. Like Simmel's (1950) stranger, Mrs. Wordsworth worked on the margins of membership in the mainstream faculty and on the sidelines of her students' instruction.

Implications for Practice

After examining Mrs. Wordsworth's attempts to coordinate instructional activities with the mainstream, what can be learned that will assist other ESL teachers? While Mrs. Wordsworth's experiences illustrate how

the forces of partial membership shape the efforts of ESL teachers to collaborate with the mainstream, they also raise the question as to how ESL teachers can begin and maintain successful collaboration. The solution has two parts.

First, whether ESL teachers are just beginning a position and hoping to build new collaborative relationships with the mainstream or have worked in the same building for many years and would like to engage with their current situation more productively, it is important for these teachers to examine the local politics surrounding ESL instruction within their schools and to develop informed positions. Taking a lesson from Mrs. Wordsworth's experience, ESL teachers should investigate how the pull-out program began and examine the work of past ESL teachers, as well as current and past efforts on the part of their schools to form relations with parents and to secure ESL grants and funding. Second, ESL teachers should survey current concerns raised by mainstream instructors and administrators, and a timely response to the issues raised should follow in the form of a report describing recent findings.

Learning about the origins of the pull-out program is a way to gain information that can inform and facilitate the planning of future in-services, planned meetings, and informal discussions with mainstream instructors and administrators. The impetus for such planned discussions should be the questions and concerns generated by the mainstream instructors and administrators' exploration of the program. Presentation of the data gathered from such investigation and follow-up suggestions on the part of the ESL teacher may serve to break the ice with mainstream instructors or administrators who may be reluctant to meet. In the first meeting, discuss the results of the data collection and respond to any questions. If the data and the local circumstances within the school warrant it, suggest future meetings or the formation of special committees to discuss instructional issues.

Once planned discussions have begun, there are two ground rules that should be established. First, in order to eliminate marginalizing patterns of communication such as those witnessed in the dialogues between Mrs. Wordsworth and the mainstream community, establish clear and productive purposes for exchange. Depending upon the needs of the individual program and teacher, flexible agendas that include both student and curricular concerns might be established. Additionally, each meeting should include a period of time for mainstream teachers to raise questions about the instruction of ESL students, to share ideas, and to develop respectful working relationships with ESL instructors.

Throughout the meeting, find ways in which everyone can participate. Draw out reticent teachers with open-ended questions, encouraging them to speak from their own experiences. This will open a forum on ESL

instruction as well as foster a shared sense of ownership on the topic. Finally, conduct discussions away from noisy halls or lunchrooms and in quiet, environments that dignify the important work that must be done. Holding important discussions about the business of ESL instruction in the hallway, as Mrs. Wordsworth had to do, diminishes the dignity and the importance of such work.

Finally, it is important to remember that Mrs. Wordsworth's experiences are only part of a much larger challenge concerning successful collaboration between ESL and mainstream teachers. Further suggestions on how to meet this challenge will emerge as ESL teachers from a variety of programs begin to investigate the social and political dynamics that shape ESL instruction at their particular schools. Until then, the lessons learned by Mrs. Wordsworth are a call for all of us to rewrite the dialogues between ESL and mainstream instructors in ways that will result in relationships that are positive, collaborative, and mutually empowering.

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Sequencing Information Competency Skills in an ESL Program

■ Researchers (Bowley & Meng, 1994; Cope & Black, 1985; Kamhi-Stein, 1996) have focused on the need for librarians and ESL faculty to collaborate on teaching library skills for academic purposes. These skills are needed to utilize resources that include print materials, computer databases, and Internet sources. Information literacy competency standards are currently being developed on the national, state, and local levels by library and educational organizations, but little is known about ESL instructors' perceptions of teaching library research skills, also known as information competency skills. This study surveyed full-time and part-time ESL faculty at an urban community college about the levels at which various information competency skills should be taught.

The results of this study reveal that most full-time ESL instructors favored introducing only the most basic library skills (such as how to check out books and information about how a library is organized) at the beginning ESL level. They favored teaching most other information competency skills (such as database retrieval and on-line resources) at more advanced ESL levels. It is evident from this study that ESL curriculum designers need to integrate all library and information research skills in a progressive manner with sufficient scaffolding and collaboration among librarians, teachers, and students.

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ESL students often enter U.S. colleges and universities with little knowledge about using an academic library and with expectations of the services that a library, and librarians, can provide that are very different from U.S. educated students. Input from ESL instructors can help librarians, who understand library services but do not necessarily know the best sequence in which to teach information competency skills to ESL students. To gain more information on sequencing information competency skills, we conducted a literature review and developed and administered a questionnaire to full and part-time ESL instructors at a large, urban California community college.

Review of the Literature

Second language learners bring with them very different expectations of what constitutes a library from those of students educated in the U.S. Ball and Mahony (1987) describe academic information seeking differences around the globe. Open stacks do not exist in most non-American libraries, so students come to this country with no experience in browsing or retrieving materials on their own. A student's library experience may be limited to study hall use. "The absence of the conceptual awareness of the self-service systems of American libraries are major obstacles to comprehension of American information systems," wrote Liu (1995, p. 126).

Students come to the U.S. assuming that libraries have closed stacks and that access to materials is limited; they also have no experience with reference service as we know it. Helms (1995) suggests bridging this new information about libraries with old knowledge, explaining that libraries are not unlike other self-service entities: gas stations, grocery stores, and laundromats. The culture gap is large when it comes to libraries, and students come with their own assumptions, which have little to do with what they find here. Ball and Mahony (1987) therefore encourage staff to be very specific when informing students of library policies and services.

Library Anxiety and the Second Language Learner

Library staff members should be cognizant of the psychosocial factors that ESL students bring to their learning. Library anxiety, a condition of seemingly epidemic proportions, is addressed in a number of studies. Jiao and Onwuegbuzie (1995) define library anxiety as:

> ...an uncomfortable feeling or emotional disposition, experienced in a library setting, which has cognitive, affective, physiological, and behavioral ramifications. It is characterized by ruminations, tension, fear, feelings of uncertainty and helplessness, negative self-defeating thoughts, and mental disorganization, which debilitate information literacy. (p. 2)

In her well-known pioneering study of library anxiety, Mellon (1986) reports that 75% to 80% of American students in her sample describe their initial reactions in terms of fear or anxiety: "It was like being in a foreign country and unable to speak the language" (p. 162).

Library anxiety is compounded for nonnative speakers. In the Jiao and Onwuegbuzie study, being a non-English speaker was one of the highest predictors of library anxiety. The authors found that students are uncertain about what behaviors are appropriate, as well as what levels of service is available from libraries, concluding that nonnative English speaking students deserve special attention. Kflu and Loomba (1997) state: "Librarians must also become adept at cultural appraisal and cultural empathy. When this occurs, librarians are able to automatically and naturally choose the best methods for helping each student most effectively" (p. 527). Sequencing information competency skills according to levels of ESL proficiency makes it possible for learners to obtain a much deeper understanding of American academic libraries.

Pedagogical Implications

Moore and Yee (1982) discuss how to meet the needs of educationally disadvantaged students and ESL students, recognizing that both groups possess wide variations in educational background and ability level. Instructors are encouraged not to assume that these students have any prior knowledge of libraries. They suggest that the pace of library instruction be slowed and that scaffolding—i.e., "the provision of instructional supports when concepts and skills are first being introduced and [their] gradual removal...when students begin to develop greater proficiency..." (Chamot & O'Malley, 1994, p.10)—be utilized to build and reinforce knowledge.

Several researchers (Greenfield, Johnston, & Williams, 1986; Ormondroyd, 1989; Wayman, 1984) suggest teaching styles and strategies that have proven effective for second language students in library contexts. These include speaking slowly, enunciating clearly, minimizing complex sentence structures, avoiding jargon, defining major terms, and using synonyms to reiterate concepts. The researchers suggest that slang can be confusing to second language learners and humor should be used with caution. They further note that comprehension checks should be numerous (e.g., posing questions); handouts will allow students to focus on listening and liberate them from notetaking.

Wayman (1984) points out that the aural comprehension of second language learners, particularly international students, will probably be lower than their reading and writing comprehension. ESL students, "because of

their relatively poor communication skill in English,...very often suffer from communication apprehension, the fear of talking," reports Liu (1995, p. 125). Consequently, using library services will be very intimidating for them when so much interaction is dependent upon oral communication.

The TESOL training that ESL instructors bring to planning library instruction is very useful. Whereas librarians have expertise in information retrieval, ESL instructors are language specialists. A natural, seamless way to introduce information competency skills is to have ESL teachers work with librarians to integrate these skills into the ESL curriculum. Jacobson (1988) reports that second language students are reluctant to approach library staff and will often turn to their peers instead for assistance. ESL teachers can help bridge the gap by sharing their expertise in communicating with ESL students.

The author encourages librarians to teach by doing rather than relying solely on verbal instructions. "Observation and imitation is a common way of learning in many parts of the world," notes Wayman (1984, pp. 337-338). International students will be comfortable with this method, which should be incorporated in planning activities and assignments in the library.

Curriculum Development

Although the literature is filled with sources dealing with the differing expectations second language learners bring to American academic libraries, little has been written about librarians and ESL teachers jointly devising curriculum for second language learners. Cope and Black (1985) discuss how the role of an ESL teacher was greatly expanded when it was observed that students continued to have trouble with assignments even after formal library instruction. They advocate the role of the ESL instructor as liaison between librarian and student, noting that the ESL instructor can offer further clarification to students who are having difficulty using information resources.

A solid partnership among ESL teachers, librarians, and students can lead toward mutual understanding, increase librarians' knowledge of student abilities, and enable teachers and librarians to sequence activities appropriate to each level. Most importantly, the ESL instructor can provide " . . . unobtrusive emotional and psychological support during library sessions" (p. 161).

As an example of such a partnership, an instructional team consisting of content faculty of general education classes, a librarian, and an ESL instructor at California State University, Los Angeles implemented a multistep approach to a library research assignment which proved effective and non-threatening to students (Kamhi-Stein, 1996; Kamhi-Stein, Krilowicz, Stein, & Snow, 1997). Bowley and Meng (1994) and Kamhi-Stein (1996)

cite the greatly increased levels of confidence experienced by ESL students after such a partnership was implemented.

The goals of the partnership included purchasing materials for the library collection that better reflected the reading levels of second language students and matched subject matter most likely needed by ESL students, increasing the collaboration between faculty and librarians, and ensuring that librarians knew the skill level of a class before presenting a group lesson.

Students are naturally exposed to advanced academic reading and writing by the nature of the work they pursue in the library:

> At advanced levels within a second- or foreign-language program, students need to be exposed to the kinds of reading and writing (and listening/speaking) tasks that will be expected of them in later coursework: reading abstract materials, getting down the key ideas from lectures, writing critiques and summaries, and so forth. And once students are in a mainstream academic environment, they will need a place where they can go for assistance and support, perhaps in the form of an adjunct program or a learning center. (Richard-Amato, 1997, p. 229)

With curriculum planning and professional development, the library can be a place for such support. Wolfson (1989) argues that the

> "acquisition of sociolinguistic rules can be greatly facilitated by teachers who have the necessary information at their command and who have the sensitivity to use their knowledge to guide students and help them to interpret values and patterns which they would otherwise have difficulty in interpreting." (p. 31)

The goal of such teacher intervention is not to impose the value system or norms of behavior of dominant groups but to help learners to avoid being unintentionally misunderstood by native speakers. In the library, students can be introduced to pragmatic information competency skills that will serve them well throughout their academic careers and sustain them through life-long learning.

Research Study

Because we believe that the acquisition of information competency skills is critical to every student's academic success and because few studies have researched ESL instructors' perceptions of teaching library research skills, we developed and administered a questionnaire to full and part-time ESL instructors at a large, urban California community college in an effort to ascertain the level at which ESL teachers believe such information competency skills should be taught.

Method

Participants

Pasadena City College (PCC) is a two-year California community college that serves over 28,000 students, 36% of whom are Hispanic, 33% Asian or Pacific Islander, 21% White, 8% Black, and 1% American Indian. Students attending the five levels of ESL classes offered at PCC include approximately 900 international students on F-1 visas and also immigrant residents.

Data Collection

In Fall 1998, a questionnaire was distributed to 44 full time (F/T) and part time (P/T) ESL faculty at PCC. Some of the P/T faculty are F/T English teachers in the English and Foreign Languages or Communications Division. These instructors may teach ESL courses part time to constitute a full-time teaching position or as an overload for additional pay. Fifty-nine percent (26) of the questionnaires were returned. Ninety-two percent (11 out of 12) F/T instructors responded while forty-seven percent (15 out of 32) P/T instructors responded.

Table 1
ESL Instructors' Years of Experience and Types of Teaching Positions

N (F/T)=11 **N (P/T)=15**	**N (%)**	**N (%)**	**N (%)**	**N (%)**	**N (%)**
How long have you been teaching ESL?	0-12 mos.	1-2 yrs	3-5 yrs	6-10 yrs	11+ yrs
Full-time	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (9)	1 (9)	9 (82)
Part-time	1 (7)	0 (0)	2 (13)	2 (13)	10 (67)
If you teach ESL part-time at PCC, you also teach:	F/T in Eng. or Comm. Dept	F/T at other CC	F/T in K-12	ESL at other CC	P/T at PCC only
	7 (47)	0 (0)	2 (13)	4 (27)	2 (13)

Results

As summarized in Table 1 above, the F/T ESL teachers reported substantial experience in teaching ESL. Nine percent had 3-5 years experience, nine percent reported 6-10 years experience, and eighty-two percent had spent 11 or more years teaching ESL. Not surprisingly, P/T teachers had

less overall experience than their F/T counterparts. Seven percent of P/T faculty reported 1-12 months of experience, thirteen percent had 3-5 years experience, thirteen percent had 6-10 years experience, and sixty-seven percent had 11 or more years experience in ESL teaching.

As shown in Table 2 on the next page, most F/T faculty believed that only introductory library competencies such as knowing how to check out materials and how the library is organized should be introduced at Level 2. They identified nine skills to be taught at Level 3: asking questions of a reference librarian, using a computer catalog, using encyclopedias, recognizing types of reference books, introducing the Internet, understanding expectations and standards of U.S. libraries, knowing the difference between keyword and subject searching, narrowing or broadening a topic, and downloading to a disk. They identified an additional seven skills at Level 4: using periodical indexes, knowing the differences among electronic databases, using newspapers and newspaper indices, recognizing the differences between magazines and journals, e-mailing oneself data, locating a periodical article, and knowing when books are more useful than periodicals. The two skills identified for level 5 were critically evaluating sources and citing a source using Modern Language Association (MLA) or American Psychological Association (APA) formats.

The F/T ESL instructors as a whole are active library users. Three have jointly authored a library workbook that has been commercially published by McGraw-Hill and that includes Internet exercises (Klein, Hunt, & Lee, 1999). Many of the instructors bring their classes to the library and work closely with the PCC librarians in multi-step research activities, that they use as a foundation for writing assignments.

P/T instructors distributed the competencies more equally over the five levels of the ESL curriculum and tended to show more deviation in their responses. They named two competencies for Level 2, matching the F/T instructors' responses. At Level 3, they named nine competencies, one of which (recognizing the differences between magazines and journals) had been placed by F/T instructors at Level 4. P/T instructors designated only one competency at the highest level, i.e., citing a source using MLA or APA format, whereas full-timers also thought that critically evaluating resources was appropriately taught at this level.

When asked to add skills that were not named in the questionnaire, instructors' comments included: (1) what to do when a search does not yield results; (2) how to evaluate a source for usefulness—especially currency of information; (3) evaluating the truth claims of sources; (4) avoiding plagiarism and paraphrasing and summary skills; (5) finding information and then using it appropriately; and (6) training librarians to simplify instructions for ESL students.

Table 2
Results of the Questionnaire on Library Competency Skills

N (F/T)=11
N (P/T)=13

Information Competency	*Mean*	*SD*	*Level*	*Mean*	*SD*	*Level*
Checking out books & other material	2.27	1.01	2	2.15	1.34	2
Knowing the organization of the library	2.27	1.01	2	2.17	.94	2
Asking questions of a reference librarian	2.91	.70	3	2.86	1.35	3
Using a computer catalog	3.18	1.17	3	2.71	1.14	3
Using encyclopedias	3.27	.79	3	3.31	1.03	3
Recognizing types of reference books	3.36	.92	3	3.15	1.07	3
Introducing the Internet	3.55	1.13	3	3.67	1.23	3
Understanding expectations & standards of U.S. libraries	3.55	1.29	3	3.63	1.69	3
Knowing the difference between keyword & subject searching	3.55	1.04	3	3.42	1.08	3
Narrowing or broadening a topic	3.73	1.01	3	3.36	1.15	3
Downloading to disk	3.73	1.10	3	3.89	1.05	4
Using periodical indexes	4.00	.63	4	4.17	.83	4
Knowing the differences among electronic databases	4.10	.74	4	4.10	.99	4
Using newspapers & newspaper indexes	4.18	.75	4	3.91	1.04	4
Recognizing the differences between magazines & journals	4.18	.98	4	3.62	1.12	3
E-mailing oneself data	4.18	.75	4	4.00	1.26	4
Locating a periodical article	4.22	.67	4	4.09	1.22	4
Knowing when books are more useful than periodicals	4.27	1.01	4	4.25	.75	4
Critically evaluating sources	4.64	.67	5	3.77	1.17	4
Citing sources using MLA or APA format	5.00	.00	5	4.71	.47	5

Discussion

F/T instructors' perceptions of when information competencies should be taught were somewhat different from the perceptions of P/T faculty. Several reasons can account for these differences. F/T instructors (who on this survey had more overall ESL teaching experience) are more likely to have experience teaching the full range of classes in the ESL curriculum and are hence more likely to know the student ability at each level. They may have had limited success when they introduced some competencies at lower levels in their classes and may have more successfully integrated information searching skills with academic writing in the upper levels of the curriculum, where advanced students have more competence in writing and understanding English.

The results of the present study suggest that at the beginning ESL levels, students should be taught introductory library skills such as checking out books, using the computer catalog, and knowing the organization of the library. These findings support prior research (Ball & Mahoney, 1987; Jacobson, 1988; Wayman, 1984) that suggests that ESL students entering a college setting need to be given an orientation to the library. The findings show that students at the more advanced levels should learn the use of periodical indexes, know the differences among electronic databases, and recognize the differences between magazines and journals. The results show that at the advanced ESL level, students should learn the most difficult information competency skills involving higher thinking such as citing resources and critically evaluating sources.

The direct input of ESL instructors in the planning of a curriculum to introduce ESL students to information retrieval competencies is not the norm. Librarians largely teach skills as instructors request them, and their coverage tends to be hit or miss, reflecting the interests of the individual instructor. However, specific assistance from library staff can be incorporated into an instructional program for information competency that will have a strong impact on student learning when the cooperation of ESL teachers is elicited. When a multi-step approach is taken to teach these skills, established partnerships have produced student mastery, learner confidence, and satisfying results.

The second language learner will be greatly helped in mastering these basic skills of information retrieval when there is: (1) a recognition that second language students have unique needs and come to American libraries with very different expectations of libraries from our own; (2) a commitment between ESL teachers and librarians to fill in the gaps in these students' learning about libraries; and (3) a systematic curriculum so all instructors will be informed about which information competencies should be taught at specific levels of ESL classes.

Conclusion

An important goal for any collegiate ESL program is to prepare exiting students to succeed in mainstream content area courses. The ESL classroom is the logical place to begin teaching information competency skills. The introduction of these concepts is most effective when tied to classroom assignments. Library instruction can then have a strong element of classroom accountability that promotes retention. Instruction is best in authentic setting with a grade or course credit of some sort tied to the assignment. Student learners will have every opportunity to succeed with such learning strategies.

ESL students, like other inexperienced library users, require instruction that will fill in the gaps in their knowledge about American academic libraries and need to be introduced to information seeking behaviors. The scaffolding that takes place with a multi-part writing assignment (as discussed by Kamhi-Stein, 1996) is not only useful but will be remembered and retained for the future. ESL students are very receptive and quickly recognize the importance of library skills, but most library professionals are unaware of the specific instructional methods suggested by Greenfield, et al. (1986), Ormondroyd (1989), and Wayman (1984), as previously discussed.

More importantly, both librarians and ESL instructors need to know how foreign libraries differ from those in this country (Ball & Mahoney, 1987; Helms, 1995; Liu, 1995). Those of us who grew up in the U.S. know little of foreign libraries and take for granted our own democratic and free access to public school and college libraries. Preparing library staff and instructors for what to teach students before they start to study in our libraries will greatly benefit second language students, providing meaningful input and decreasing their library anxiety. A commitment of time and energy on the part of librarians and ESL teachers can ensure that ESL students get a good start in their academic future with successful experiences in the library.

Currently, a flurry of activity is taking place in the library community to draft standards on local, state, and national levels for information competency skills (a Web site where such standards can be viewed online is: http://www.fiu.edu/~library/ili/iliweb).

The Association of College and Research Libraries is working on a draft of *Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education* and the Board of Governors of the California Community Colleges adopted Information Competency Plan Recommendations at its May 11, 1999 meeting. (These recommendations similarly can be viewed online at http://www.cccco.edu).

Our study demonstrates that ESL faculties recognize the importance of integrating information competency skills into their programs. Based on the perceptions of those surveyed, ESL faculty seem to favor a logical progression of teaching introductory skills at the beginning levels and critically evaluative skills at more advanced levels. Librarians, ESL instructors, and curriculum designers need to work together to integrate information competency skills into an ESL curriculum. Further research needs to be carried out to determine how this can best be done.

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Appendix
ESL Instructor Information Competency Skills Questionnaire

At what level do you think ESL students should be introduced to the following information competency skills in the ESL curriculum at PCC?

Please mark your scantron with the level you think each skill should be introduced:

[A] ESL 420, 460, 421 [B] ESL 422, 432, 442 [C] ESL 122
[D] ESL 33A, ENG 415, ESL 142 [E] ESL 33B, ENG 130, ESL 152
[No Mark] Not important to teach

1. Using periodical indexes (paper and on-line).
2. Using a computer catalog to find a book then locating it on the shelf by call number and location.
3. Recognizing the difference between a popular magazine and a scholarly journal.
4. Knowing how their library is organized: layout, hours, etc.
5. Locating a periodical article by paper edition, microform or on-line on a computer database.
6. Citing a source using MLA, APA or a named format.
7. Downloading computer information onto a disk.
8. E-mailing oneself database information.
9. Critically evaluating sources which includes distinguishing fact from opinion.
10. Knowing the difference between keyword and subject searching.
11. Narrowing or broadening a topic.
12. Using newspapers and newspaper indices.
13. Understanding expectations and standards of American academic libraries.
14. Asking questions of a reference librarian.

15. Using general and special subject encyclopedias.
16. Introducing the Internet.
17. Checking out books and other material from the library.
18. Recognizing types of reference books, their location and appropriate use.
19. Knowing when books are more useful sources than periodicals and vice versa.
20. Knowing the differences among electronic databases in the library.

If there is a skill you think is important, but has not been identified, please add it here:

Please tell us something about yourself:

21. How long have you been teaching ESL?

    [A] 0-12 months [B] 1-2 years [C] 3-5 years
    [D] 6-10 years [E] 11 + years

22. Do you teach ESL full-time at PCC?
    [A] Yes [B] No

23. If you teach ESL part-time at PCC:
    [A] You teach full-time in the English or Communications Department at PCC
    [B] You teach full-time at another community college
    [C] You teach full-time in a K-12 school district
    [D] You teach ESL at other community colleges
    [E] You teach only at PCC part-time

Thank you very, very much for you input in this survey. We will be happy to share the results with you when it is compiled.

The CATESOL Journal

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K-12 Education in the Post Proposition 227 Era

In recent years, California voters and legislators—often acting from an uninformed, "common sense" perspective about teaching and learning—have enacted initiatives and legislation that have created unprecedented implementation challenges in K-12 public schools. Proposition 227, the *English Language Education for Children in Public Schools* initiative,[1] passed by a majority of California voters, has had a profound impact on English learners (ELs). The intent of this initiative was to eliminate bilingual education programs and to limit to one year the amount of time ELs could receive specialized instruction in English as a Second Language, also known as English Language Development (ELD).

Prior to its passage, educators grappled with what the regulations from Proposition 227 would mean in actual school settings and within the context of existing federal and state regulations requiring schools to ensure that ELs become proficient in English[2] and learn the academic core curriculum.[3] The theme section of this issue of *The CATESOL Journal* is dedicated to the impact that Proposition 227 and several other far-reaching policy changes have had on the education of ELs.

Proposition 227 is not the only recent educational initiative impacting ELs. Other relevant initiatives include the implementation of class-size reduction for grades K-3,[4] the elimination of social promotion coupled with intervention and retention policies,[5] and the creation of the Academic Performance Index,[6] an accountability system that ranks schools on the basis of student performance.[7] These new policies, systems, and mandates represent a concern about education that is welcome; however, their implementation has presented school districts and educators across California with difficult, at times insurmountable challenges. Reducing K-3 classrooms to twenty students over the summer of 1998 left districts scrambling to find available teachers and sufficient empty rooms. Many districts, partic-

ularly those serving high poverty communities and language diverse populations, are still struggling to find sufficient teachers and to train and support the high numbers of beginning teachers, many of whom have not completed a teacher education program and are teaching on emergency credentials.

Clearly, the new promotion and retention policies will only be as successful as they are thoughtful. Many questions remain. What kinds of assessments will determine whether students have met grade-level standards? Will the assessments allow ELs to demonstrate what they know and can do, and not just whether they understand directions written in English? Will the interventions truly represent alternative instructional practices in the classroom? Will extended learning reflect a focus on the needs of individual students or simply a longer school day and a longer school year filled with the same instructional practices? In this era of accountability, will the new system of ranking schools expand to include measures that are performance-based, i.e., measures that demonstrate what ELs and all children know and can do?

Our theme authors address concerns that educators across California share. What has happened in school districts and classrooms as the mandates from Proposition 227 were implemented? In her article, Sara Fields discusses the various components of Proposition 227 and how various districts have responded to the mandates. While she reports on many difficulties confronted by districts, she also finds some positive outcomes and hope for the future as school districts and communities continue to grapple with the meaning of Proposition 227 and its impact on their educational programs.

The current climate of accountability and Proposition 227's focus on learning English rapidly led to state legislation in 1997[8] for the development of a standards-based ELD assessment instrument for ELs. Natalie Kuhlman and Adel Nadeau describe the development of the ELD Standards, the specifics of the ELD Standards themselves (California Department of Education, 1999),[9] and the pathways that the ELD Standards provide to the English Language Arts Standards (California Department of Education, 1998).[10] The adoption of these ELD Standards by the California State School Board of Education represents a positive step in the recognition and understanding of the distinct experience ELs have in school as they both learn English and learn in English.

In the final article, Linda Sasser shares the professional development model created in her district for new teachers of ELs. This staff development model was created in response to program changes resulting from Proposition 227 and spurred by the presence of many new teachers with no training in ELD due to the hiring for class size reduction. With its detailed descriptions of each training module, the model will be useful to those plan-

ning staff development for new teachers of ELs as well as to educators in the classroom who are looking for ways to prepare ELs for the transition to the phonics-based literacy materials being used in mainstream classrooms.

These theme section authors address hopeful practices and outcomes as well as challenges facing educators and students as a result of Proposition 227.

Author

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Endnotes

[1] This initiative, passed on June 2, 1998, mandates that children in K-12 who are ELs be taught primarily in English, except under certain waiver situations. The proposition, intended to end bilingual education in California, states that a sheltered English immersion model will be used so that English learners "acquire a good working knowledge of English" in a period "not normally intended to exceed one year" (Unz & Tuchman, 1997). After one year, students transition into a general education classroom.

[2] The Equal Educational Opportunities Act (EEOA) of 1974 states: "[no] State shall deny equal educational opportunity to an individual on account of his or her race, color, sex or national origin by...the failure by an educational agency to take appropriate action to overcome language barriers that impede the equal participation by its students in its instructional programs" (20 U.S.C. § 1703(f)).

[3] The California State Department of Education *Coordinated Compliance Review Training Guide* states that in K-12 public education programs "... English learners are to develop fluency in English and proficiency in the district's core curriculum as rapidly as possible in an established English-language classroom or in an alternative course of study with curriculum designed for such students....English learners are redesignated fluent English proficient after meeting district criteria established to ensure that

these students have overcome language barriers, have recouped any academic deficits incurred in other areas of the curriculum, and can demonstrate English-language proficiency comparable to that of the school district's average native English-language speakers." For more information, see http://www. cde.ca.gov/cdepress/.

[4] S.B. 1777 established a limit of twenty students in grades K-3 in order to improve student achievement in reading. By reducing class size from between 30 and 36 students to only 20, thousands of teaching positions were created and districts struggled to fill the openings. Many of those hired had not yet completed or even started their teacher education program and were hired under an emergency credential. For more information, see http://www.cde.ca.gov/classsize/legis/sb_1777.htm.

[5] A.B. 1626 requires that California K-12 school districts establish policies for retaining students at second through eighth grades who do not meet minimum performance levels on grade level standards. The policy must include opportunities for interventions other than retention and for remedial instruction. For more information, see http://www.cde.ca.gov /ppr/ii.htm.

[6] The Academic Performance Index (API), part of the Education Accountability Act, ranks schools on the basis of their students' academic performance, as demonstrated on the norm-referenced, standardized achievement test, the Stanford Achievement Test (SAT-9)(1996). Schools are held accountable for student achievement and are rewarded or penalized based on their API rank. For more information, see: http://www.cde.ca.gov/psaa/api/frame/frame.htm.

[7] The SAT-9 is currently used in California for determining academic achievement of all students, including ELs.

[8] A.B. 748, also known as the Escutia Bill, set the stage for standards-based assessment in all four skill areas for K-12 students whose primary language is other than English.

[9] The ELD Standards delineate the knowledge, skills, and strategies in ELD that ELs need as a pathway to the English Language Arts Standards for K-12. These standards, which integrate listening, speaking, reading, and writing, create a foundation for reading in English rather than delaying the introduction of this skill. They will form the basis for the development of a statewide test designed to measure English language proficiency.

For more information, see: http://www.cde.ca.gov/cilbranch/sca/eld/eld.html/.

[10] The English Language Arts Standards specify the knowledge, skills, and strategies in language arts (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) that K-12 students should master or be proficient in at the end of a specific grade level. They are the basis for a supplementary test that is used in addition to the SAT-9.

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The CATESOL Journal

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English Language Development Standards: The California Model

There are now over 1.4 million children in California who are not proficient in English. These numbers are triple what they were in 1985. Twenty-five years ago, the U.S. Supreme Court found in Lau Nichols (1974) that children who are taught in a language they do not understand do not have equal access to the core curriculum. Since that time, there have been a variety of programs, approaches, theories, and methods used to teach English to these children and to make the core curriculum accessible to them through the primary language. However, none of these approaches have been long-term or systematic. The 1998 passage of Proposition 227 (Unz & Tuchman, 1997) now mandates that children be taught primarily in English except under certain waiver situations.

While 227's proposed "Structured English Immersion" model is also unproven and does not include recommendations for how to teach English or what to include in the way of academic content, the California English Language Development Standards, approved by the State Board of Education on July 15, 1999 (California Department of Education [CDE], 1999) and based on the California English Language Arts Standards (CDE, 1998), provide the framework for such a system to be put into place.

In this article, we will first review a few of the more common models, approaches, and programs used to teach English Learners (ELs) and examine how these children have been assessed. Next, the current standards-based reform efforts for all education, and specifically for teaching English to ELs, will be reviewed. Finally, the foundation and development of the California English Language Development (ELD) Standards will be presented, along with examples.

Programs and Methods for Teaching English Learners

The first and most controversial issue that has been addressed regarding English instruction for ELs is how much of the child's first language (primary language) should be used. After the Lau decision, most models called for extensive instruction to be given in the child's primary language. Second language researchers found that the stronger the proficiency in the first language, the easier it would be to acquire a second language (August & Hakuta, 1997; Cummins, 1981; Gandara, 1997; Krashen, 1981; Samway & McKeon, 1999). This finding was in concert with the common sense dictate that it is easier to learn in a language one understands and that once one learns to read in one language, it is easier to learn to read in another.

Thus, the first language was believed to provide a foundation in reading, writing, and mathematics that could be transferred to English as the child became more fluent in English. Programs varied, however, in the amount of instructional time spent in the first language (L1) and in the length of the programs themselves. This made such programs very difficult to study empirically. Kenji Hakuta has repeatedly suggested that we have not done a good job of researching bilingual education (Hakuta, 1986; August & Hakuta, 1997), but the number of variables alone makes this an onerous task.

The most common model in the United States to extensively use the primary language is Transitional Bilingual Education, in which children are gradually moved from use of the primary language to all English instruction, usually within two to three years. Research results do not show that such early exit Transitional Bilingual Education is particularly effective (Berman, Chamber, Gandara, McLaughlin, Minicucci, Nelson, Olsen & Parrish, 1992; Ramirez, 1992; Thomas & Collier, 1995).

Late exit Transitional Bilingual Education (from four to six years before exit) has been shown to be successful in achieving academic proficiency (Baker, 1996; Ramirez, 1992; Thomas & Collier, 1995). Other models, such as two-way bilingual (also known as dual language immersion), provide for the long-term development of two languages by two populations. For example, native speakers of Spanish and native speakers of English both learn a second language while also learning in their first language, with the goal being that they all become bilingual and biliterate. Many of these programs nationally have shown positive results in attainment of academic achievement in English (Thomas & Collier, 1995).

However, there are only approximately 250 of these programs nationally, and most are limited to elementary schools (Christian, 1994). Academic achievement resulting from these programs has been most often determined by standardized tests such as the California Test of Basic Skills

(Samway & McKeon, 1999). The Stanford Achievement Test, Ninth Edition (SAT-9; 1996) is now used in California for determining the academic achievement of all students.

Gandara (1997) reports that approximately 70% of the 1.4 million children who are not proficient in English are educated in "English only" classrooms. Programs that focus primarily on English instruction, such as pull-out ESL, are considered less effective models (Baker, 1996; Faltis & Hudelson, 1998). In this model, children receive from 20 minutes to an hour per day of English language instruction and are "submerged" in English academic instruction in regular classrooms the remainder of the day. Neither the methods used to teach English nor the specific goals or objectives in these and other programs are usually discussed in the literature.

As mentioned in the introduction, another model, Structured English Immersion (SEI), has received recent attention due to the passage of California Proposition 227 (Unz & Tuchman, 1997). In this model (not defined in 227), the intent is to "shelter" English academic content while at the same time providing instruction that leads to English language proficiency. Neither pull-out ESL nor SEI makes significant use of the primary language, and the teachers are most often monolingual in English.

SEI, also known as "sheltered English", as originally conceived (Krashen, 1981), made use of the learner's first language and was intended for those already with intermediate English proficiency. The current model does not have this requirement. What little research currently exists on pull-out ESL and SEI (reviewed in August & Hakuta, 1997; Gandara, 1997) has not shown them to be generally effective in terms of academic achievement. One program begun in Texas has shown some initial success, although not long-term (August & Hakuta, 1997). In response to Proposition 227, which, for the most part, limits services to ELs to one year, it is expected that there will now be extensive research in California on SEI.

Whatever the program model, how English has been taught to ELs also has varied considerably. The approaches and methods used range from the audio-lingual method and the communicative approach, to the natural approach and others (see Richard-Amato, 1996, for an overview of these approaches). No one theory, method, or approach has been found to be most effective. There also have been no standards or goals specifying exactly what children need to know to be successful academically. To some extent, the state-approved proficiency tests, intended for purposes of identification and redesignation of ELs, (e.g., Language Assessment Scales [LAS; 1991], Bilingual Syntax Measure [BSM; 1978], Idea Oral Language Proficiency Test [IPT; 1994]) have been benchmarks, but none of these are specifically tied to academic standards or curriculum.

English language instruction over the years has been guided for the most part by the latest theories and approaches to second language acquisition developed by such researchers as Ellis (1985); Gardner (1985); Genesee (1987); Krashen and Terrell (1983); and McLaughlin (1985). Publishers in the 1980s and 1990's moved away from texts that focused primarily on teaching language without academic content (such texts focused more on grammar and vocabulary), and began creating ESL curricula that were content-based (using modified SEI techniques). Many of these latter materials used scope and sequence models with specific objectives, while others offered theme-based units. Whereas many had clear objectives for a lesson or unit, few if any of these texts had standards or specific overall goals for student achievement that were also tied to the core curriculum for all students.

The Standards Movement

Standards are not a new concept in the United States. The term is used in a variety of ways, but usually means "a criterion, gauge, yardstick, touchstone, a means of determining what a thing should be...something established by authority, custom, or general consent as a model or example" (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, 1977, p. 1133). Dalton (1998) refers to them as "banners guiding the way at the front of a procession" (p. 4).

Standards-based education is a movement that has quickly spread throughout the country in response to reforms in education and a need for accountability for all students. In this context, standards are generally defined as benchmarks for accountability (O'Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996) or goals that students will attain. Standards call for consistency in what we expect from students. Darling-Hammond (1997) suggests that if we continue to only make school reform a result of exceptions to rules and/or to provide waivers from programs, such reforms "will surely evaporate in a very short time, long before good schooling spreads to the communities where it is currently most notable by its absence" (p. 211). Standards are clearly a way to provide the stability and consistency Darling-Hammond advocates. However, there are also those who are concerned that the Standards Movement will lead to a lock-step curriculum.

Darling-Hammond asks, "If some system is needed, the question is how much system and of what kind?" (1997, p. 211). She sees a direct connection between standards for student learning and for teaching and that both are necessary for genuine learning to occur. In response to this call for reform, academic standards have been developed nationwide for a variety of subject areas. Standards "identify the types of knowledge and skills that are important in the content areas but do not indicate *how* successful students must be in accomplishing the objectives" (O'Malley & Valdez-Pierce, 1996, p. 27).

Some standards have been developed by the U.S. government, while others have been developed with organizational funding. For example, the English Language Arts Standards (National Council of Teachers of English /International Reading Association, 1996) were developed jointly by the two aforementioned organizations; the Mathematics Standards were developed by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (2000). Finally, the ESL Content and Assessment Standards were developed nationally by the organization Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (1997) .

Types of Standards

O'Malley and Valdez-Pierce (1996) identify two types of standards. *Content Standards* include *declarative knowledge* that "consists of *what* you know, or knowledge of concepts and facts," (p. 26), while *procedural knowledge* is what you know how to do. *Performance Standards* are more specific and identify ways in which to demonstrate declarative and procedural knowledge and the level of performance to be attained.

The TESOL ESL Standards and Assessment Project

ESL Standards, unlike other academic content standards, are not intended to stand alone (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages [TESOL], 1997). Rather, they are intended as a pathway to academic content standards. "They assume student understanding of and ability to use English to engage with content" (TESOL, 1997, p. 2). Together with Content standards, ESL Standards can provide this needed guidance about that pathway. ESL Standards can "provide the bridge to general education expected of all students in the United States" (TESOL, 1997, p. 2). For these reasons, TESOL created a task force to develop pre-K-12 ESL content and assessment standards.

Over the past six years, this task force has produced a series of documents under the direction of Deborah Short of the Center for Applied Linguistics. The first of these was an access document* intended to aid schools in determining which programs are helping language minority students to meet the National Education Goals (TESOL, 1997). Next, a conceptual framework was created, published as Promising Futures (TESOL, 1996). This document describes why ESL Standards are needed, explains myths about second language learning, lays out TESOL's vision of effective education for all students, and provides general principles for second language acquisition.

* now published as part of the TESOL Standards

It was only after these foundations were laid that the TESOL ESL Standards for Content and Assessment performance standards were created. The TESOL ESL Content Standards (1997) are centered around three general goals, with three standards for each goal. Each standard is delineated with descriptors, progress indicators, and vignettes. The document is further organized around three grade levels (pre-K-3, 4-8, and 9-12) and three proficiency levels (beginning, intermediate, and advanced). The three general goals of the TESOL ESL Content Standards are:

1. To use English to communicate in social settings
2. To use English to achieve academically in all content areas.
3. To use English in socially and culturally appropriate ways. (p. 9)

According to the TESOL Standards:

> For ELs, such goals and standards for language development specify the language competencies ESOL students in elementary and secondary schools need to become fully proficient in English, to have unrestricted access to grade-appropriate instruction in challenging academic subjects. (pp.1-2)

A teacher education volume (Snow, 2000) has just been published, as has a draft version of *Scenarios for ESL standards-based assessment* (TESOL, March, 1999), and curriculum guidelines are now being developed based on these standards.

The California ELD Standards and Assessment Project

While national standards tend to be general in nature, state standards are more applicable to local contexts. For this reason, the State of California has been developing academic standards for all the major content areas (e.g., math, science, social studies, and language arts). Standards completed for English Language Arts (ELA) cover all aspects of reading, writing, listening, and speaking (CDE, 1998). They include recommendations for ELs, but are not sufficient to meet the needs of those students. As with the TESOL ESL Standards, guidance is needed so that ELs in California can follow a pathway that leads to California ELA Standards.

A systematic way of determining whether ELs have become proficient in English has long been sought. Various legislative attempts have been made over the past few years in California to establish accountability for bilingual education programs in general and for English language skills in particular; however, these attempts have not completed the legislative process and/or were vetoed by the governor. For the most part, accountability and growth in language proficiency has been measured

through the instruments mentioned earlier (LAS, IPT, BSM) and a standardized test of language and math. These are used to "exit" students from program services.

In the latest effort to set up a statewide system to chart language proficiency growth, Assembly Bill 748 (A.B. 748), the Bilingual Education: Assessment of Language Skills Act (1997), also know as the Escutia Bill, was proposed in the legislature. It authorized the search for and/or development of a statewide assessment of English Language Proficiency for all K-12 students whose primary language is other than English. This assessment was to be standards-based in the areas of listening, speaking, reading and writing. A.B. 748 was signed by Governor Wilson in October 1997. In December 1997, the San Diego County Office of Education was awarded the contract to implement A.B. 748, with Adel Nadeau appointed as Project Director.

Three tasks were identified for the project. First, as with the TESOL Standards, a theoretical framework was to be developed to guide both the standards and the assessment to follow. Barbara Merino of the University of California at Davis was appointed the Task Force coordinator for this aspect of the project. Second, a task force was formed to revise and/or create new English Language Development (ELD) Standards to be aligned with the recently approved English Language Arts Standards. Natalie Kuhlman of San Diego State University became the coordinator for this aspect of the project. The third group, coordinated by Magaly Levandez of Loyola Marymount University, would focus specifically on a technical review of current assessment instruments in the field (A.B. 748, 1997).

The theoretical framework and development of new ELD Standards have been completed. On July 15, 1999, the California State Board of Education adopted the K-12 English Language Development Standards that will serve as the basis for statewide assessment. The assessment group has completed a technical review of existing tests. The second phase of that project, now underway, is the actual development of a statewide measure of English language proficiency. The contract was recently awarded to CTB McGraw Hill, and the test is expected to be available by Fall 2001.

ELD Standards Design

In the following sections, the California ELD Standards, as approved by the State Board of Education, will be discussed. The California ELD Standards are performance expectations and not instructional activities. They do not dictate the method of instruction. As is indicated in much of the literature, standards state what children are expected to know, not how they will learn it.

Regardless of what type of program a child is enrolled in (e.g., dual language immersion, transitional bilingual education, or structured English immersion, as described earlier), the rigor of the ELD Standards holds all teachers accountable for the development of full academic proficiency in English. Similar to the second TESOL ESL goal, the goal of the California ELD Standards is to provide a pathway to the ELA Standards, as well as access to all content areas taught in English. The California ELA Standards detail what is needed for *all* students from kindergarten through 12th grade to become fully literate in the English language. The ELD Standards detail the pathway that ELs need to follow to also reach the ELA Standards. For ELs to become fully literate, the ELD Standards must maintain a high level of rigor.

As such, the ELD Standards represent a system of accountability that will move students more rapidly into the mainstream curriculum but will also assure them more than a superficial level of English proficiency. Specifically, the system represents the following approach to English language development:

1. The ELD Standards provide a clear pathway of performance to achieve grade-level ELA Standards, the same level as for all students in the state. Students use language proficiency level appropriate materials, including reading texts, until they reach the advanced level of proficiency when they are ready for grade-level materials.
2. Academic content is tied to the ELA Standards, but with ELD content integrated throughout the Standards. There is an integration of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Reading is not delayed, but a distinct pathway to literacy is created that is appropriate to the ELs.
3. Listening and speaking expectations are embedded throughout the categories, not just in a section entitled "Listening & Speaking."
4. There is a balance between communication, language conventions, and academic English.

Organization of the Standards

Grade Spans

The ELD Standards are divided into four grade spans (K-2, 3-5, 6-8, and 9-12) rather than into specific grade levels. Grade spans are needed because children will be entering school at various levels of proficiency in English and with varied levels of school experience. Children who are placed in first grade because of their age may not have acquired the prerequisites in

English language development that are needed to be successful. Children in seventh grade may have neither previous schooling nor experience with English. Both groups of children need much more than just grade-level coursework. The grade span system allows for such variations in needs.

Language Proficiency Levels

ELD Standards address five proficiency levels: Beginning, Early Intermediate, Intermediate, Early Advanced and Advanced. These are roughly equivalent to what is currently used in a variety of language proficiency tests (e.g., LAS, BSM, IPT). One way to understand these levels is through the examples given later in this article. The proficiency levels are distinguished by key words such as "identify" (beginning), "produce" (early/intermediate), "explain" (early advanced), and "apply" (advanced). The ELD Standards for each proficiency level represent the *exit point* for that level.

Categories

The ELD Standards are subsumed under the same categories as those used in the ELA Standards. However, some categories are separated into smaller or slightly different units (see Table 1). The overall ELA categories are Reading, Writing, Written and Oral English-Language Conventions, and Listening and Speaking. In the ELA Standards under Reading there are just three sub-categories; in the ELD Categories, Reading is separated into four sub-categories: Word Analysis; Fluency and Systematic Vocabulary Development; Reading Comprehension; and Literary Response and Analysis. These added divisions allow for the gradual language growth needed in these areas.

In addition, in the ELD Standards, "Written and Oral English-Language Conventions" have been separated rather than combined. Written Language Conventions is a second category in Writing, while Oral Language Conventions has been subsumed under Listening and Speaking.

These variations were made because of the different needs of students developing English as a new language compared to the needs of students using English as their native language. As mentioned above, ELD students who have attained the advanced proficiency level will also meet all the ELA Standards. The ELD Standards represent pathways to the grade-level ELA Standards; those standards are reached upon exit from the "Advanced" proficiency level of the ELD Standards.

Table 1
Comparison of ELA and ELD Categories

	ELA Categories	ELD Categories
Reading	1. Word Analysis, Fluency and Systematic Vocabulary Development	1. Word Analysis 2. Fluency and Systematic Vocabulary Development
Reading	1. Reading Comprehension	1. Reading Comprehension
Reading	1. Literary Response & Analysis	1. Literary Response & Analysis
Writing	1. Writing Strategies 2. Writing Applications	1. Writing Strategies & Applications
Conventions	1. Written & Oral English Language Conventions	1. Writing Conventions
Listening & Speaking	1. Listening & Speaking Strategies 2. Speaking Applications	1. Listening & Speaking Strategies & Applications

ELD content is combined with the skills reflected in the ELA Standards. The ELD Standards then become precursors to ELA expectations. A one-to-one correspondence will not be seen between the ELD Standards and each ELA Standard since several ELD Standards may be needed to reach one ELA Standard. By the Early Advanced and Advanced proficiency levels, the ELD Standards approximate the language of the ELA Standards for equivalent grade spans. The Advanced proficiency level is the level that represents readiness to meet grade-level ELA Standards.

A second important design element of the ELD Standards is that they represent an integrated approach to the various categories of literacy instruction. The teacher approaches the ELD Standards in each ELA category as simultaneous building blocks of language. For example, while the phonemes of the English language are taught receptively, they are heard within the contexts of meaningful vocabulary. This vocabulary is used by the student in standard grammatical sentences and phrases. Students may then engage in activities that help them use the vocabulary and syntax in sentences about a familiar story in order to enhance their reading comprehension.

The Standards

Examples are given below from the ELA and ELD Standards. In addition, the San Diego County Office of Education has now in draft form two shorter versions of the ELD Standards. The first of these, the ELD Profiles (Kuhlman, 1999a) offer teachers and district personnel a thumbnail sketch of the whole set of ELD Standards. The second version, the ELD Descriptors (Kuhlman, 1999b), is intended to be used as rubrics for assessing progress to meet the ELD Standards. Examples of the Profiles and Descriptors are also included below.

ELD Standards Example 1: Grade span K-2, Word Analysis

The first example demonstrates the pathway to a typical ELA phonemic awareness standard at grade one. The appropriate ELA standard is followed by the parallel ELD Standard. This is important for children whose first language has sounds that are different from English, whether they have previous experience in reading in L1 or not. In this example, students are first asked to recognize and produce English sounds that are common to L1 and L2. They are then asked to recognize and produce English sounds that don't occur in the L1, but do in English. They are then expected to connect these English phonemes to the symbols they represent, and finally, use them in the context of oral reading in English.

Word Analysis

Phonemic Awareness

Standards:

1. Distinguish long and short-vowel sounds in orally stated single syllable words (e.g., bit/bite).
2. Blend two to four phonemes into a recognizable word (e.g., /c/a/t/ = cat; /f/l/a/t/ =flat)

Figure 1. *Grade 1 California English Language Arts Standard for Reading. (CDE, 1998, p.8).*

Beginning	Early Intermediate	Intermediate	Early Advanced	Advanced
1. Recognize *English sounds* that correspond to sounds students already hear and produce in L1.	1. Produce English sounds that correspond to sounds students already hear and produce in L1. 2. Recognize English sounds that do not correspond to sounds students already hear and produce in L1.	1. Produce most *English sounds* comprehensibly in the context of oral reading. 2. Recognize sound-symbol relationship and basic syllabication rules in self-generated phrases, simple sentences or predictable text.	1. Use common English word parts to derive meaning in oral and silent reading, e.g. basic syllabication rules, regular and irregular plurals and basic phonics.	*Standards and reading materials approximate grade level.* 1. Apply knowledge of common English word parts to derive meaning in oral and silent reading, e.g., basic syllabication rules, regular and irregular plurals and basic phonics.

Figure 2. *ELD K-2 Word Analysis Profiles (Kuhlman, 1999a).*

Example 2: Grade Span 6-8, Reading Comprehension

The next example is taken from the 6-8 grade span and demonstrates a pathway to two of the ELA Standards under Reading Comprehension. These include understanding the differences among informational materials (e.g., newspapers, magazines, and editorials) and understanding main ideas. The representative ELD Standards include the above content at the beginning proficiency levels but are couched in the English language appropriate to that proficiency level. Students may be expected to respond in simple words and phrases at the early levels but in complete and then detailed sentences at the upper levels when responding to the concepts presented. The California ELA Standard for Reading Comprehension is presented first in Figure 3, followed by the corresponding ELD Standard in Figure 4.

Reading Comprehension

Structural Features of Informational Materials

Standards:

1. Identify and use the structural features of, and differences among, newspapers, magazines, and editorials to gain meaning from text.
2. Connect and clarify main ideas, identifying their relationship to other sources and related topics.

Figure 3. *Reading Grade 6: California English Language Arts Standard for Reading (CDE, 1998, p. 47).*

Beginning	Early Intermediate	Intermediate	Early Advanced	Advanced
1.Use graphic organizers to identify the factual components of compare and contrast patterns in informational materials, newspapers, and magazines. 2. Orally identify main ideas and some details of familiar literary text and informational materials using key word or phrases.	1. Orally identify the factual components of compare and contrast patterns found in familiar informational materials using key words or phrases. 2. Read and orally identify main ideas and details of informational materials, literary texts and texts in content areas using simple sentences.	1. Read and orally explain main ideas and details of informational materials, literary text and text in content areas, using detailed sentences 2. Identify and orally explain the differences among some categories of informational materials using detailed sentences.	*Students will perform both orally and in writing at this proficiency level.* 1. Identify, explain, and critique the main ideas and critical details of informational materials, literary text and text in content areas. 2. Identify and explain the differences among various categories of informational materials.	*Standards and reading material approximate grade level.* 1. Identify, explain, and critique the main ideas and critical details of informational materials, literary text and text in content areas. 2. Identify and analyze the differences among various categories of informational materials.

Figure 4. *ELD 6-8 Standards: Reading Comprehension Profile (Kuhlman, 1999a).*

As the figures demonstrate, it takes several ELD Standards to build the pathway to one ELA Standard.

The next examples come from the K-2 grade span and are taken from profiles of each proficiency level, rather than from the full Standards. Figure 5 shows a Reading Comprehension Profile, a thumbnail sketch of the ELD Reading Comprehension Standards.

Beginning	Early Intermediate	Intermediate	Early Advanced	Advanced
1. Respond non-verbally (drawing or physical action) or with 1-2 words, to stories read to them or simple directions. 2. Identify the basic sequences of events in stories read to them, using key words or visual representations such as pictures and storyboards.	1. Respond orally with phrases or simple sentences or by drawing to factual information or simple directions. 2. Orally identify the basic sequence of text and make predictions using drawings.	1. Write short captions for drawings from experience or stories and follow multi-step directions. 2.Answer factual questions using simple sentences; point out basic text features and make predictions about stories using simple phrases or sentences.	1. Read and use basic text features such as title, table of contents, and chapter headings. 2. Orally identify main idea; make predictions using detailed sentences; answer factual questions about cause and effect relationships; write a brief story summary (three or four complete sentences). 3. Read and orally respond to stories and texts from content areas by restating facts and details to clarify ideas.	1. Locate and use text features such as title, table of contents, chapter headings, diagrams, and index. 2. Use a variety of comprehension strategies with literary texts and texts from content areas; generate and respond to essential questions, make predictions; compare information from several sources; write summary of a story and/or informational materials. 3. Read and orally respond to stories and texts from content areas by using facts and details to clarify ideas.

Figure 5. *K-2 ELD Reading Comprehension Profile (Kuhlman, 1999a).*

Beginning	Early Intermediate	Intermediate	Early Advanced	Advanced
L/S • Uses a few words; answers some questions; uses common social greetings	**L/S** • Begins to be understood with inconsistent grammar; communicates basic needs	**L/S** • Understood when speaking using mostly standard grammar and pronunciation; asks and answers questions; retells stories	**L/S** • Uses consistent standard English grammar; actively participates and initiates conversations	**L/S** • Negotiates and initiates conversations; listens attentively to stories and information
WA • Recognizes English phonemes student already hears and produces in L1	**WA** • Produces known English phonemes and recognizes those that do not correspond to sounds student knows in L1	**WA** • Produces most English phonemes comprehensibly; recognizes sound/symbol relationships and basic word formation rules	**WA** • Uses common English morphemes, phonics, and phonemic awareness to derive meaning in oral and silent reading	**WA** • Applies knowledge of common morphemes to derive meaning in oral and silent reading
SV • Reads aloud simple words; retells simple stories using visuals	**SV** • Begins self-correcting errors; communicates basic needs; reads simple words, phrases and sentences	**SV** • Self-corrects errors; uses more complex vocabulary and sentences and decoding skills to read more complex words; recognizes simple prefixes and suffixes	**SV** • Self-monitors and corrects errors; recognizes simple antonyms and synonyms	**SV** • Self-monitors and corrects errors; explains common antonyms and synonyms; reads narrative and texts aloud with appropriate pacing, intonations, and expression
RC • Responds non- verbally or with a few words to stories and simple directions	**RC** • Responds with phrases, simple sentences or visuals to factual information; follows simple directions; identifies basic sequence of text	**RC** • Follows multi-step directions; writes short captions for drawings	**RC** • Answers factual questions about cause and effect relationships; identifies main idea; uses basic text features; restates facts and details to clarify ideas	**RC** • Uses a variety of comprehension strategies with literary and content area texts; makes predictions; writes summary of a story
W • Copies the English alphabet and writes a few commonly used words	**W** • Writes key words and simple sentences about an event or character in a text	**W** • Writes short paragraphs	**W**•Writes narratives with more detail; some grammatical rules not in evidence	**W** • Writes short narratives using the writing process and correct grammatical forms
WC • Uses some capital letters and periods	**WC** • Uses capital letters, periods, and question marks	**WC** • Uses standard word order, with inconsistent grammar and punctuation	**WC** • Consistent use of capitalization, periods, and some correct spelling; some editing	**WC** • Consistent use of conventions and mostly correct spelling
LA • Answers factual comprehension questions using few word responses; draws pictures identifying setting and characters	**LA** • Identifies setting and characters using simple sentences; recites simple poems	**LA** • Answers factual questions using simple sentences; reads short poems	**LA** • Identifies literary elements and beginning, middle, and end of a story	**LA** • Compares and contrasts literary elements

Figure 6. *ELD Standards Descriptors, K-2 Grade span (Kuhlman, 1999b)*
L/S = Listening/Speaking; WA= Word Analysis; SV=Systematic vocabulary; RC=Reading Comprehension; W=Writing; WC=Writing Conventions; LA=Literary Analysis & Response

ELD Descriptors

Figure 6 provides descriptors or a rubric for all the categories for the K-2 grade span. The descriptors are intended to be used as rubrics for assessing progress to meet the ELD Standards.

Conclusion

Conversion to a standards-based system is an evolving process. It promises to raise the level of knowledge of the children in our schools by forming a consistent goal for achievement throughout California. As curriculum is developed to provide instructional guidance to teachers and as the SAT-9, the California state-wide assessment of academic achievement, is further refined to be aligned with the standards set by the California State Board of Education, we will be able to determine how close our students are to achieving these goals.

However, to understand and be able to achieve these standards (and the English Language Arts Standards in particular) one must have access to English. The existing ELA Standards were developed for those already proficient in English. While some accommodation or comments are made throughout that these Standards are "also good for English learners," the Standards approved in Language Arts and other content areas do not provide the pathways necessary for ELs to be successful. The English Language Development Standards offer these pathways, grouped by grade spans and proficiency levels, to ensure that the 1.4 million ELs of California also have the opportunity to be successful in school, to meet the expectations for achievement for all California children, and to become productive members of our society.

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LINDA SASSER
Alhambra School district

Responding to Change: A Small-district Staff Development Model

Alhambra is a community in Southern California with an elementary school district serving approximately 11,384 students, of whom 5,206 are designated as not yet English fluent (California Department of Education, 1999). According to the California Department of Education's 1999 language census, five major languages are represented: Spanish, Cantonese, Mandarin, Vietnamese, and Chaozhou.[1]

When elementary teachers in Alhambra City Schools, a K-8 district, returned to their classrooms in the fall of 1998, they were faced with several challenges. First, the passage of Proposition 227 (Unz & Tuchman, 1997), its incorporation into the Education Code, and the subsequent changes in district policy and programs had resulted in the elimination of identified bilingual classes. Without parental waivers, English Learners (ELs) who had previously received reading and writing instruction in Spanish would no longer be provided with literacy development in their primary language. Although Proposition 227 directed teachers to deliver literacy and subject matter instruction in English, there were not enough appropriate English language materials to fill the void created when Spanish language texts were put away.

Second, in response to the opportunity presented by Senate Bill (S.B.) 1777 (1999) to reduce class sizes in the primary grades and focus on reading instruction, the district was continuing to hire teachers to staff additional primary grade classrooms. Historically, Alhambra's 13 elementary schools have competed for teachers with adjacent districts offering higher starting salaries. The effect of this competition has been that many of Alhambra's newly hired teachers are credentialed through the emergency credential process and may not yet be enrolled or advanced very far in credential programs at local universities. In the fall of 1998, this situation was exacerbated by S.B. 1777. Some of the newly hired teachers had undergraduate majors in child development, but many did not and almost none of them had taken

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courses in methodology for ELs. Approximately 13% were classified as having only a bachelor's degree (California Department of Education, 1998).

Third, 1998 was Alhambra's fourth year of transitioning from a pull-out[2] model for English as a Second Language (ESL) to a model for instruction that made each classroom teacher responsible for instructing ELs. From the 1970s until about 1992, Alhambra used a pull-out program staffed by 12 teachers for 13 elementary schools. The pull-out teachers had focused their instruction on middle- to upper-grade newcomer students. During that period, as the district's ELs increased in number and diversity, a pull-out model became less and less viable because there were too many ELs to be served by a pull-out program. During a several year phase-out period, experienced ESL teachers attempted to pull-in; ESL teachers spent four days pulling-in and one day each week developing curriculum units. With no preparation and little support for the change in program model, volatile feelings surfaced on every side. Though two ESL teachers took early retirement, the rest accepted classroom positions in the district.

Some veteran "mainstream" teachers, accustomed to sending ELs to the ESL teacher several times a week, were resentful of a perceived "additional" responsibility to provide appropriate instruction. Others welcomed the opportunity to learn more about the children in their classrooms. Almost none of the classroom teachers, veteran or inexperienced, were proficient in the sorts of strategies taught in TESOL methods courses. Into this situation came Proposition 227 and S.B. 1777.

Alhambra has not been alone in facing these challenges. Though there has been little public discourse on the effect of the change in program models or the lack of appropriate instructional materials for ELs, the role of newly hired, emergency credentialed teachers has received attention. "Districts that typically hire between 35 and 45 teachers at the start of a new school year are now hiring as many as 80 to 100 new teachers, many with emergency credentials" (Lipin, 1999, p. A5). The percentage of emergency credentialed teachers in Alhambra elementary schools ranges from a low of 5% to a high of 29%, ("Academic," 2000) with an average of 16%. Although mandatory training in reading instruction has been a component of S.B. 1777, the focus has been on reading for native- and fluent-English speakers. Little or no attention has been paid in these state-mandated Alhambra trainings to the specialized oral language development needs of ELs or to an understanding of how oral language development in English relates to literacy development.

In the school year of 1998/99, the 5,206 Alhambra elementary students identified as ELs comprised 45.7% of the district population in grades K-8. (California Department of Education, 1999). If these numbers are further broken down into the primary grades targeted by class size reduction under

S.B. 1777 (including the formerly identified Spanish bilingual classrooms), there were approximately 2,776 identified ELs in grades K-3 when school opened in the Fall 1998. As shown in Table 1, these children represented more than half (53.3%) of the elementary district's EL population.

Table 1
ELs in Grades K-3
Alhambra City Elementary, Fall 1998

Language:	Chaozhou	Cantonese	Mandarin	Spanish	Vietnamese
Kindergarten	31	247	60	224	51
First	36	263	75	246	64
Second	38	242	88	220	51
Third	49	205	85	237	37

(Figures based on California Department of Education 1999 Annual Language Census.)

With only a few exceptions in the upper grades (where students were grouped by departments for instructional purposes,) most ELs were mainstreamed in primary grade classrooms. Assignments to specific classrooms were often driven by capacity (20:1) rather than specific EL needs. Often a teacher would have only one beginning level student when another teacher at the same grade level would have several.

The combination of forces (i.e., class size reduction resulting in the hiring of many untrained teachers, high numbers of ELs in grades K-3, the complete elimination of bilingual classes, and teachers unfamiliar with ESL strategies) created a need for immediate assistance. District leaders realized that all involved—new teachers, experienced teachers, children new to school, and children new to the language—would need help to succeed.

A Problem and a Partial Solution

The District's program for ELs is philosophically rooted in the Natural Approach (Krashen & Terrell, 1983), Cambourne's model of learning (Cambourne, 1988), and the district's Balanced Literacy Program (Alhambra School District, 1997). Contained in the Balanced Literacy Program are language arts and English language development (ELD) objectives, corresponding to both grade and proficiency levels. These objectives are reflected on the Alhambra ELD Progress Profile (see Appendix A), on which teachers record the dates that each EL attains benchmarks for the objectives.

When our staff conducted one-day new teacher orientations to the district program for ELs, it became clear that most of the new teachers (many

of whom were orally proficient in more than one language) held varied notions of second language acquisition. Most had little knowledge of teaching young ELs, although many of these new teachers had themselves immigrated to the United States at an early age. These immigrant teachers had little recall of participating in special programs designed to meet their own needs as young ELs. Almost none were familiar with the district materials available for ELD, or with appropriate strategies that could knit together learners' experiences, language needs, and both district and state standards.

After analyzing this situation, staff members (the author and a colleague)[3] in the English Language Development Program Office proposed a series of staff development sessions targeted at new teachers who needed ESL strategies to support Beginning ELs[4] in the primary grades. As space permitted, the series would also be open to experienced credentialed teachers. We proposed 10 modules, one per week, each covering strategies designed to develop the oral language proficiency of ELs.

Using the district's grade level standards for ELs and the state's current ELD Standards as a guide (California Department of Education, 1997),[5] the series would assist teachers in planning lessons to help Beginning ELs:

> comprehend high-frequency words and basic phrases in immediate physical concrete surroundings; ... interact with frequently used English print in a limited fashion; demonstrate initial English print awareness; write familiar words and phrases and questions drawn from content areas, and follow classroom routines and schedules; express basic personal and safety needs and respond to questions with one-to-two word answers and gestures; and demonstrate and use basic social conventions. (http://www.cde.ca.gov/cilbranch/sca/eld/eld_grd_span.pdf)

The topics of the modules would include: developing and using a picture file; using Total Physical Response (TPR) to enhance lesson delivery (Asher, 1977; Krashen & Terrell, 1983); enriching classroom activities with movement and music; utilizing graphs and matrices to develop oral English skills; playing games to build vocabulary; incorporating music and chants to develop phonemic awareness and build patterns of English syntax and grammar; developing literacy through language experience and patterned writing (Dixon & Nessel, 1983); utilizing flannel boards and puppets to engage students through storytelling; and creating books to celebrate emerging literacy.

A Few Details

The workshops were scheduled in the late afternoon from 3:30 to 5:30. We understood that beginning teachers have many demands on their time

(i.e., recuperation from the intensity of teaching, enrollment in required classes to obtain a credential, and the development, assessment and evaluation of lessons). Therefore, to encourage attendance, teachers were given materials and offered a small stipend at each session. To collect this stipend, teachers had to attend 8 out of 10 sessions. Without this encouragement, we were concerned that teachers might frequent the series only occasionally, rather than make a commitment to learning the content of the modules. The modules were designed in interconnected ways: What was introduced in one session resurfaced or was alluded to in another. Without consistent attendance, new teachers might miss these connections. Each module consisted of an explanation, several demonstrations, application by the teachers, and often a "make-and-take" component, as we shall discuss presently.

Implementation of the strategies was enhanced by giving teachers the materials used in each workshop. Teachers were provided with materials ranging from Magnetic Way (Ballard, 1985) kits to flannel puppets, pocket charts to cassette tapes. These materials will be discussed more precisely in the explication of each module.

Initially, we scheduled one afternoon each week for the workshops. Due to very strong response, however, staff members ended up conducting four separate workshops each week for ten weeks, offering more than 75 teachers an opportunity to gain practical strategies for instructing ELs. The series was repeated for 28 new teachers in the Fall/Winter session of 1999/2000.

The Modules

Picture File

A picture file is a collection of photos, illustrations, drawings, prints, and pictures that ELD teachers select to support the development of oral language and grade level concepts. For example, picture files provide visual support for teaching basic naming, describing, and action words; they can also be used to enhance concept development for young learners. Picture files complement other strategies like TPR, matrix activities, and vocabulary games. Holding up an apple as an example, we began the picture file module by emphasizing that teachers would need to remember (particularly when teaching young, preliterate ELs) that an instructional sequence moves from the concrete (things children can know through their senses, such as real apples) to the abstract (flat, one-dimensional representations of real things such as pictures, or orthographic representations such as the word *apple*).

Three-dimensional objects are always better than pictures, but, since we cannot bring cows and fire trucks into most classrooms, pictures make good

substitutes. Thus, we provided a rationale for using pictures: pictures are easy to prepare, meaningful, and authentic; they stimulate interest and motivation (Wright, 1989). We also emphasized the context that pictures and other visuals provide for actions, feelings, and behaviors; the vocabulary that can be developed; and the background knowledge that can be constructed or extended through a creative use of picture files.

In the demonstration phase, we explained how to build a picture file and how to make wrapping paper envelopes to store pictures by categories. We also provided multiple short demonstrations of how and when to use visual support. We involved teachers in first-hand experiences in how to develop oral language through pictures, demonstrating TPR, visual clustering, development of vocabulary categories through sorting and labeling, and extending oral language through values clarification exercises (Simon, Howe & Kirschenbaum, 1972) using picture stimuli.

After this definition and demonstration phase, teachers were given a stack of materials (e.g., calendars, department store catalogs, and discarded magazines) for a "make and take" experience. Each teacher left the session with the start of a picture file.

Total Physical Response

TPR is a technique developed by Asher (1977) to teach language by using the imperative "command" form. In applications of TPR, students often guess at meanings by following visible cues or gestures for each command. The strategy builds confidence in young learners as their receptive (comprehension) skills expand, gradually becoming automatic. By focusing children on comprehension of the commands and contextual remarks, TPR creates a comfortable environment that facilitates the flow of language into the child. With repeated exposures to contextualized TPR, speech emerges quite naturally as children begin to sub-vocalize the commands. The module emphasized that TPR is both familiar and common—in fact, parents and teachers use it often (e.g., "Give Mommy your shoes!" or "Open your books to Chapter 3."). We connected TPR with the phonemic awareness emphasis of the ELD Standards and demonstrated how it could be used in conjunction with a picture file, with manipulatives, with familiar primary grade materials, and with games, chants, and rhymes.

The value of TPR was brought home to participants when one of us read a familiar fairy tale aloud in German.[6] After the read-aloud, we discussed the activity, focusing the teachers' attention on how little they understood, how their attention wandered, and how some were grasping to make sense of sounds they had heard. Our intent was to make the point that a

strategy like reading aloud (appropriate for fluent and native English speakers) is not appropriate for beginning ELs.

A second German demonstration followed: This time the demonstrator retold the story using a big book of *Little Red Riding Hood* as a prop. Discussion again helped teachers to acknowledge that they understood more than in the previous demonstration because of the visual support provided by the book and due to their prior knowledge of the fairy tale. Though several teachers recalled specific cognates (such as apple/*Apfel*), they realized they had learned little language.

The final German demonstration used the Magnetic Way fairy tale kit.[7] Using four figures from the kit (mother, grandmother, girl, and wolf), the demonstrator selected several volunteers to participate with the Magnetic Way board and engage with the German words for the characters, four colors, two simple commands ("point to" and "show me"), simple either/or questions, and several compliments ("good," "very good," and "outstanding").

Discussion with the volunteers elicited how TPR combined with a classroom resource had helped them to understand almost everything in the demonstration as well as to acquire some German phonology and vocabulary. We listed these understandings of the demonstration on a chart: instruction occurred with a small group; members of the group were similar in their proficiency; the stream of language was slightly slowed down; limited instructions were preceded and clarified by demonstrations; volunteers were not forced to speak or corrected when they did; and each person in the group had opportunities to interact with the highly visual manipulatives (i.e., the four story "characters"), the teacher, and other group members. Noting that the demonstrator used smiles and praise to encourage the group, one new teacher mentioned that her mentor teacher had told her not to smile at her class until "after Christmas." This provided us with an opportunity to discuss the role of interaction and encouragement in the development of oral language.

After the TPR demonstration, teachers formed small groups to practice activities incorporating TPR. We began by demonstrating several activities: the familiar children's game "Simon Says," the nursery chant "Open, Shut Them," the action song "Head, Shoulders, Knees, and Toes," and an invented game using a *Nerf* or *Koosh* ball tossed and caught across a circle to say names and ages, and practice numbers in sequence.

Finally, because we believe that the impact of TPR is better understood when demonstrated in non-English languages, during the last phase of the module, teachers who spoke Spanish, Vietnamese, Cantonese, or other Chinese dialects were invited to practice TPR with small plastic animals. In

new teacher training, it has been our experience that when TPR is demonstrated in English, participants have difficulty seeing its value. Their fluency in English makes them impatient to move quickly into full production and enables them to overlook TPR's incorporation of extraneous language, the prepositions, adjectives, greetings, and praise. Demonstrating TPR in English to English speakers leads those unfamiliar to misuse the strategy by moving too quickly, by incorporating too much language, or by delivering it in a stilted, artificial form and by focusing on productive rather than receptive language skills. Thus, we concluded our demonstration by asking teachers to employ TPR in languages other than English.

In small mixed language groups (e.g., a Cantonese-speaking teacher would present TPR to those who spoke no Cantonese) teachers were given small plastic animals ("manipulatives") to teach one another the names of lion, tiger, bear, elephant, crocodile, and zebra. There was laughter as teachers learned that TPR requires very few words, many repetitions, lots of praise, and multiple opportunities for participants to demonstrate comprehension. As teachers left, each received a bag of small plastic farm or wild animals and a plastic container for their storage.

Movement and Music

We began the third module by asking how many teachers knew the American singing game called "The Hokey Pokey." Teachers who were familiar with this game were distributed in a large circle to serve as models. Using a recording as background and stimulus, teachers and leaders danced "The Hokey Pokey." Discussion of the experience elicited some of the emotions indicative of a low affective filter (Krashen & Terrell, 1983): the group felt interested and relaxed. These good feelings helped focus attention on the use of movement and music to soothe, energize, or enhance children's moods. Activities with music and movement help teachers accommodate different learning styles, particularly for musical, spatial, and kinesthetic learners.

If teachers are comfortable with movement and music (and to use it most effectively, teachers should be able to enjoy and participate), these activities lower the affective filter. This occurs because EL children can participate as equal partners in the whole group and because many linguistic and kinesthetic cues and clues are embedded in the experience. As ELs participate in music/movement activities, speech emerges quite naturally. To emphasize this, we recalled how many of us non-speakers of French can sing "Alouette" or "Frères Jacques" as a result of participation in scouting and other recreational programs.

Subsequently, we elicited ideas for music and movement activities that connect with or extend a story, theme, or classroom topic. For example, we asked, "If you are reading a book about bears, how can you include a music activity?" We suggested bringing in an old favorite such as "The Bear Went over the Mountain." We also suggested putting new words to familiar tunes; for example at Halloween, we can change the words for "The Paw Paw Patch" to "...picking up pumpkins, put 'em in a wagon...."

Since many of the new teachers have been raised and schooled outside the United States, many traditional United States songs are unfamiliar. Because some teacher preparation programs have eliminated required music courses and children's literature from the curriculum, immigrant teachers are at a disadvantage in the area of traditional children's songs, rhymes/chants, and stories. Some new teachers with immigrant backgrounds exhibited discomfort when the silliness of some songs (such as "The Hokey Pokey") asked them to lose inhibitions. Though the use of music may lower children's affective filter, it may have the opposite effect on their teachers. By stating that many paths to language are opened by music and telling teachers to start first with music they like and feel comfortable with, we acknowledged this discomfort before moving onto the next demonstration.

Subsequently, we asked teachers to select a rhythm band instrument to play along with the Ella Jenkins song "Play Your Instrument and Make a Pretty Sound" (Jenkins, 1990, track 1). We modeled an introduction to using music in a lesson: listen to the whole song, chunk it into manageable portions, and model any activity to accompany the song.

Following this, teachers were assigned to one of six songs: "Baby Beluga" (Raffi, 1980, track 1), "Wheels on the Bus" (Raffi, 1982, track 4), "Put a Little Color on You" (Palmer, 1993, track 3), "You'll Sing a Song and I'll Sing a Song" (Jenkins, 1989, track 1), "What are You Wearing?" (Palmer, 1969a, track 2), and "Parade of Colors" (Palmer, 1969b, track 8). Each group was provided with a tape recorder and a tape of the song. We provided time to learn the song and any motions as well as time to create appropriate props using pictures. In the concluding activity, following the previously modeled sequence, each group taught a song with its movements or props to the whole group. On leaving, each teacher chose one of the above cassettes and a rhythm band instrument to use in future ELD lessons.

Graphs and Matrices

The fourth module introduced teachers to charts in the bigger category of *visual organizers* (also called *graphic organizers*). Because graphs and matrices convert concrete information to abstract formats, they can be used

to practice both language and interpretation/inference skills. This module exposed new teachers to both pictographic and numeric charts and again used a picture file in combination with a T-graph and a pocket chart.[8]

Graphs and matrices are useful to children because even very young children almost instinctively develop a concept of number (i.e., "more or less," "none or some," "more than one"). Parents will recall that the two-year-old who gets a cookie in one hand soon holds out the other hand for another cookie and is not long satisfied by mother breaking the first cookie in half. For children who have learned to count in their home languages, graphs and matrices tap into the universality of numeric/enumeration systems. For those ELs who are learning to count, graphs and matrices provide many opportunities to practice enumeration.

Though new teachers often think of graphs and matrices as belonging to content areas like math or social science, such tools are useful in vocabulary and concept development across the curriculum (Heimlich & Pittelman, 1986; Pittelman, Heimlich, Berglund, & French, 1991). Incorporating graphs and matrices in an ELD lesson helps provide the redundancy that is necessary to increase vocabulary because it provides opportunities for both teachers and ELs to use new words and structures in meaningful ways over and over again. Additionally, the use of graphs and matrices anticipates some of the difficult syntactic structures used in mathematics, statistics, and social science (e.g., "many/more/most," "few/fewer/least," "more than/less than," "the most/the least," "how many/how much," "same/different," and "as...as...." Used to make comparisons or evaluations, words like these are almost meaningless in isolation. In context, however, they become significant and meaningful to young children.

This module's first activity demonstrated a simple T-graph combining a picture of an African wart hog (from the picture file) with the "yes/no" question: "Do you like wart hogs?" Teachers wrote their names on a clothespin and attached it to the side of the T that represented their answer. We followed this by showing how oral language could be developed with the data generated by the question and answer. Techniques included: *counting* clothespins (answers); *asking who* answered "yes" or "no" (eliciting names); *making statements* about the most and least number of pins; and *questioning* what reasons might have gone into these choices.

Next, we demonstrated how to use the same T-graph data to construct a bar graph. Asking the question again, we used chart paper with two vertical columns, one labeled *YES*, the other labeled *NO*. Teachers each used one adhesive-backed piece of paper and placed it in the column representing their answers. Because the sticky papers aligned with the columns, the paper looked more like a traditional bar-graph than did the T-graph using clothes

pins. We then elicited other ways of representing data, and teachers suggested coloring in squares and pasting pictures into appropriate columns.

The next activity used a paper grid laid out on the floor. Animal pictures were glued along the bottom edge of the grid; numbers were written vertically along the left edge. Using corresponding plastic animal manipulatives from the previous module, teachers chose their favorite animal and put it in a rectangle above the picture to which it corresponded. Discussion again elicited suggestions on how to read and use the graph and why a graph using real objects (such as plastic animals) is a concrete way for very young learners to develop symbolic thinking.

The final demonstration used a pocket chart with six animal pictures aligned with its left edges. After modeling a review of the animal names, we asked teachers to draw their favorite animal from among the target group. We used their pictures to construct a pictorial, horizontal bar graph. Discussion once again elicited suggestions on how to use the chart for language development.

Our matrix demonstration showed how to use a simple matrix to build vocabulary for African animal attributes (see Appendix B). Though the matrix has only four categories (hooves, claws, tusks, and horns) for four animals (elephant, zebra, water buffalo, and lion), it provides a context to create a variety of patterned sentences. Examples might include: "The lion has claws, but the zebra doesn't." and "Both the zebra and the water buffalo have hooves." In the "make and take" component, teachers worked with a partner to lay out a T-graph back-to-back with a matrix (for dimensions, see Appendix C). On index board, teachers glued a contrasting paper T to one side and measured a matrix on the reverse side. After laminating, the product was ready for classroom use.

Vocabulary Building Games

This module opened with a tea party strategy (targeted for adults) in which teachers mingled to find matching proverb halves. The teacher who had "A penny saved" had to find a partner who held "is a penny earned." The discussion after the activity elicited other ways to use a tea party strategy with young beginning ELs using pictures or single words. Matching activities suggested by the teachers included: matching a picture to a picture; matching a picture to a word; matching a picture of one cat with a picture of two cats; matching two halves of the same picture or word; matching collocated pictures or words of items such as "shoes and socks" or of concepts such as "off and on," "up and down," or "hot and cold"; and matching comparatives, such as a small cat with a smaller cat, a large dog with a larger dog, and so forth.

Vocabulary games can be played by ELs of all levels. Although beginning students can play games that focus on receptive language, as speech emerges children can play games that increase their oral language production. More advanced students can play games to develop oral language and literacy skills simultaneously.

Whether games are simple or complex depends on the age and oral proficiency of the learner. Used judiciously, games lower the affective filter and subtly teach social skills as well as syntactic patterns and vocabulary. Games can reinforce and enliven lessons. In addition to asking teachers to consider linguistic requirements, we asked them to consider such aspects as space requirements, noise, and physical activity levels. We suggested providing a balance between physically active games, visual/oral games, and paper games. We also modeled how to teach a game like a lesson the first several times it is played.[9] We asked teachers to consider, "When you introduce a game, how will you demonstrate the object and rules of the game? How will you coach the players?"

The following games were demonstrated to small groups with the remaining teachers as observers:

Add-on: This game, which is carefully scaffolded from concrete to more and more abstract, is an excellent way to augment a reading lesson and to activate students' vocabulary. It uses picture support to cue phrase generation and involves having students use a phrase pattern with a fill-in and add-on element. For example, when using the book *A Chair for my Mother* (Williams, 1982) with first graders, the game would be played as follows. The teacher names things we find in the kitchen. Then, using the picture file, she names an array of kitchen furnishings found in the pictures (stove, refrigerator, sink, and so forth). She next distributes the pictures, asking each student "What do you have?" She listens and confirms each answer, correcting indirectly if necessary; she repeats this procedure until she is assured that all students in the group can answer.

Next, the teacher explains the game. Student #1 begins by saying, "In my kitchen I have a stove." Student #2 adds to the statement by saying, "In my kitchen I have a stove and a refrigerator." Student #3 continues, saying, "In my kitchen I have a stove, a refrigerator, and a table." After playing the game with the pictures face up (providing visual support), the students turn the pictures over and play the game again. For variation, the teacher can redistribute one picture to each student, asking them not to show their picture to anyone else. Playing the game in this fashion, using the oral statements alone, is cognitively challenging to all young children, ELs or English proficient.

Modified 20 Questions: The object of this game is for the teacher to guess which animal the students are thinking of. In version one, the teacher

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puts a row of animal pictures in the pocket chart, naming them as she does so. She asks a demonstration group of students to quietly collaborate and decide on an animal but not tell her which one it is. She then explains the rules, i.e., that she will ask them "yes/no" questions to guess which animal they are thinking of, stressing that they can only answer with "yes" or "no." For example, she might ask: "Is the animal big? Does it fly? Does it have a long tail? Is it gray? Does it have four legs? Does it have a long nose? Does it eat meat? Is it an elephant?" If the teacher fails to guess the animal after asking ten questions, the students win the round.

Once the students have played this version several times, version two of the game can be played. Here, the roles are reversed, with the teacher thinking of the animal and the children asking the questions. The teacher should rehearse the question types that elicit "yes/no" answers and establish ground rules (e.g., no wild guesses about animal names). A third version of the game involves having individual children at the center of attention. One child thinks of the animal and the others ask questions while the teacher acts as a coach and helps children pay attention to the answers and develop question-asking strategies. We recommend that teachers always use picture support and use the pocket or T-graph chart to keep track of "yes/no" answers.

Marketing: This is an add-on game with more activity. The teachers seat children on chairs in a circle, as if for musical chairs. With one less chair than the number of children, the extra child is named "It." (Be sure this child can speak clearly and can remember a long phrase.) The teacher gives all seated children a picture of something they can buy in a grocery store, naming each item as a model. She then explains the rules of the game. Following the directions, "It" walks around the circle looking at the pictures, saying, "I went to the market and I bought some..., and some...", naming the pictured items that the seated children are holding.

As each item is named, the seated child puts the picture face up on the chair and follows "It." Whenever "It" is ready, he or she says, "...and then I dropped the basket." At this point, the children scramble for their seats. The one left standing becomes "It" and the game begins again. This game challenges children because the tension of finding a chair complicates the listening task. It presumes that children are very familiar with the vocabulary.

Have you seen my friend?: This is a tag game, played similarly to "Duck, Duck, Goose." It should follow an ELD lesson in which children have worked on descriptive vocabulary of clothing. This game makes use of pictures from the picture file depicting children wearing colored and striped shirts, skirts, jeans, jumpers, and so forth. Best for this game are pictures with some degree of similarity. The students first practice describing the

pictures. The teacher then designates one child as "It" and puts the remaining children and their pictures in a circle.

The children conceal their pictures from "It" as "It" walks around the outside of the circle, taps another child on the shoulder, and says, "Have you seen my friend? S/he is wearing..." (i.e., describing one of the pictures held by another child). As soon as the child holding the picture recognizes the description, he or she drops the picture and chases "It." "It" runs around the circle and takes the empty seat, picking up the picture that was described. The new "It" walks around the circle, taps someone on the shoulder, and the game begins again.

The remaining vocabulary games were demonstrated by asking teachers to move from station to station for Picture Bingo; Spinner games for story retelling; Concentration and Cube games; Picture Dominoes; and Go Fish! At each station, teachers created a game, in the process learning how to quickly and easily randomize bingo boards, create picture support for story retellings with a storyboard and spinners, develop pre-reading skills through concentration, and review and repeat target vocabulary by fishing with magnets for pictures or words to develop target vocabulary. Teachers left the session with bamboo fishing poles and magnets for Go Fish! as well as with directions and patterns for the remaining games. They were also provided with a copy of *Basic Vocabulary Builder: Black Line Masters* (Liebowitz, 1988) to use in creating their own vocabulary games. It was not coincidental that many of the pictures also lent themselves to constructing graphs and matrices.

Chants and Rhymes

At the beginning of the school year, new teachers attending these modules had already received intensive staff development in balanced literacy and reading strategies designed for native speakers of English as a component of S.B. 1777. Because we believed that these inexperienced teachers had little context for the message they had heard, we wanted to engage them with an opportunity to place phonemic awareness and phonics in a learning context. As Gibbons (1991) states, "The importance of context extends to the teaching of phonological awareness. Sounds in isolation become very distorted and hard to remember because they are abstract" (p. 78).

Chants not only naturally develop phonemic awareness but also provide strong support for topics developed in ELD lessons as well as what Richard-Amato (1996) calls "meaningful word/sound play" (p. 157). Chants and rhymes provide engaging models of stress and intonation patterns in English — particularly important to students like those in Alhambra whose first languages are tonal (Piper, 1993).[10]

Because the theme of wild animals had been used in all the previous modules, the module on chants and rhymes opened with the poem "A Trip to the Zoo," from a big book with pictorial support (Animals, 1997.) Teachers located the poem's rhythmic patterns and were led to discover the onsets and rhymes, syllables, and syntactic features (e.g., participles and nouns used as adjectives, complex sentences, and elliptical dependent clauses). We modeled one way that a poem or chant can be taught: Present the poem in meaningful segments; ask children to listen to the lines as they are presented; then ask children to repeat or read along with the lines; and increase the segments in length until the whole poem can be recited with confidence. Then we modeled a variation on the basic presentation: When students are familiarized with a poem, bring it back again by taking turns (teacher and groups of students, e.g. first table/second table; girls/boys) reading different lines or segments.

Teachers shared familiar childhood rhymes when we prompted them to recall jump-rope chants (such as "Teddy bear, teddy bear, tie your shoe...") or silly rhymes (such as "I asked my mother for fifty cents..."). These rhymes and chants elicited memories and laughter, helping new teachers realize that—like the games and music—chants and rhymes extend topics and themes, providing the necessary redundancy and repetition that contribute to oral language development. Perhaps as importantly, chants and rhymes are naturally attractive to children, providing listening and speaking practice as ELs develop awareness of the phonemes and structures that they will need to become successful readers and writers.

Once again, teachers were grouped and given materials. The materials in this case were *Jazz Chants for Children* (Graham, 1979) and *Let's Chant, Let's Sing, Book 1 and Book 2* (Graham, 1994.) Each group of teachers prepared a chant and taught it to the whole group using gestures and props as needed. We distributed a packet containing references to collections of jump-rope and other familiar chants and rhymes (Cole,1989; Cole, 1995; Worstell, 1972). Each teacher kept a copy of one of the books demonstrated and its accompanying cassette tape.

Lesson Planning

The lesson planning module underwent several revisions in format and delivery as we incorporated what we learned about beginning teachers into the staff development. Our intent had been to assist inexperienced teachers in pulling together the separate module strategies into a comprehensive whole. However, the teachers were inadvertently revealing that they had no long range plans (and often no plan beyond tomorrow), that many lessons

were delivered as activities without conceptual or linguistic goals, and that the pace of presentation was too quick ("been there, done that").

From a more experienced perspective, we knew that new vocabulary and structures were appearing too briefly for EL children to make sense of, let alone use in language development. Many of the newly hired teachers could not differentiate between EL production levels and consequently did not design lessons according to the fluency level of each child. Except when students were grouped for formal reading instruction, most lessons were delivered "whole class" (i.e., to the whole vast range of proficiency levels, from non-speakers to articulate English monolinguals).

After one early module in which we had presented several songs, a new teacher reported that she had returned to her classroom and played the whole tape for her ELs. The fact that the children liked the tape was more important to her than using it in a meaningful way. To forestall this misuse of materials and strategies, we felt strongly that at least two hours should be spent on lesson planning. As summarized in Richard-Amato (1996), Wong-Fillmore (1985) "concludes that teacher lessons that are consistent, are well organized, and have similar formats with clear beginnings and endings appear to be the most effective" (p. 273). Our staff development goal was not only to provide practice with ESL strategies, but also to improve teacher lessons, including the delivery and impact of those lessons.

To this end, we wanted teachers to engage with the Magnetic Way (Ballard, 1985) visual kit, a crucial resource for beginning ELs in the district ELD program, and to bring to the magnetic board other strategies and materials that had been demonstrated. We distributing plastic bags of Magnetic Way visual "manipulatives" from kits as varied as *Dinosaurs* and *The Supermarket*. Teachers joined grade-alike groups of four and chose a partner to work with. This resulted in 8-10 small groups. Teachers were given one hour to plan and share lessons using the pieces, the Magnetic Way board, and the TPR strategy (Asher, 1977). We provided a template (Appendix D) to help script their presentations. As teachers worked, we circulated to clarify and coach. In their presentations, we asked teachers to explain how they determined the focus of the lesson, describe any struggles to sequence activities within the lesson, and discuss their concerns with lesson delivery.

Following these presentations, we demonstrated a lesson-planning map (Appendix E). Teachers were given a blank map and asked to work with a partner to map a series of lessons that targeted beginning ELs. We emphasized that the map is filled with categories of activities in no particular order. To bridge the gap between activity and the ELD progress profile (Appendix A), we examined each activity from the perspective of production level and skills, then matched it to a benchmark on the profile. As we worked through the planning maps, we asked teachers to keep in mind the

curriculum objectives in the content areas at their grade levels and the district benchmarks for ELs as measured by the ELD Progress Profile.

As the teachers worked, we again moved from group to group, to assist and engage them in dialogue. Teachers submitted their maps so office staff could retype them in a standard format. The maps were compiled and given back in packet form at the conclusion of the series.

Building Literacy through Storytelling and Language Experience

We began this session by demonstrating how to use a flannel board and a picture book to tell a story. We used two books, *Caps for Sale* (Slobodkina, 1968) and the rebus book *The Jacket I Wear in the Snow* (Neitzel, 1989).

Telling a story with a flannel board, like using the Magnetic Way, requires practice in managing small pieces and in putting them on and off a board.[11] Our demonstration asked volunteers to hold the pieces and put them on or remove them from the board as they appeared in the story. This is a variation of story experience as described by Richard-Amato (1996). Follow-up discussion elicited the observation that kinesthetic involvement in the story telling builds a sense of story (both books feature a problem and solution) as well as specific vocabulary. Additionally, teachers noted that the variations provide comprehensible input, redundancy, and a topical focus.

Following the story activity, teachers made the flannel pieces needed for storytelling in their classrooms. Each teacher also received a copy of one book and a large piece of flannel to mount on the back of the Magnetic Way board in order to increase their opportunities to use both sides of the board. When teachers finished the "make and take" portion, we demonstrated the Language Experience Approach (LEA)[12] by showing a video made in a district first-grade classroom.

Preceding the video, our discussion with the teachers emphasized that when we spoke of introducing print to beginning primary grade ELs, we were *not* talking about formal reading instruction. Rather, we were talking about using children's existing oral language (structure and vocabulary) to introduce thoughtful, experience-based activities with print. The goal of such interaction is to make students *successful* readers and writers in English. Though the messages new teachers received in staff development accompanying S.B. 1977 were perceived as urging them to hurry young second language students into formal reading instruction, we believe the best route to formal reading instruction begins when the oral foundation is strong.

As Gibbons (1991) explains:

> The reconstruction of meaning is an interactive process between the reader and the text, because the reader also makes a contribution. To get meaning from a text, readers bring their own background

> knowledge of the "field" or topic, and their understanding of the language system itself. Without these, a piece of text is meaningless to a reader—for example, if it is in an unfamiliar language or about unfamiliar things. (p. 71)

Thus, we planned the LEA demonstration to show how literacy activities can be specifically targeted to prepare students for reading success by building background and vocabulary, establishing concepts, and using language structures. We believe that lessons for ELs should provide multiple opportunities to use language in meaningful ways as well as opportunities for language reformulation and innovation when children apply their knowledge (both acquired and learned). LEA capitalizes on this process by utilizing children's own experiences, encoded by words, dictated to a teacher, who then helps them reformulate their utterances to create a text for shared and individual reading.

Since fluent or monolingual English-speaking children come to reading with their experiences encoded in thousands of English words, we asked teachers to consider how these children express their experiences. These children have the ability to use English to make statements, ask and respond to questions, give information, express opinions, as well as to follow the social conventions expected by their community. Such language performance is usually embedded in contexts in which these children use age-appropriate syntax and vocabulary. This fluency signals their readiness for formal reading instruction. If EL children do not have this fluency in the language of instruction, then the road to English literacy will require additional time to travel.

The LEA video showed how five first-grade ELs listened to a story, dictated statements about the story, and then participated in choral and individual reading of their statements. The video also showed students reconstructing their statements after they had been separated into individual words and reading their own and a partner's statement. For EL children, LEA lessons build receptive and productive skills in language structure, vocabulary, and pre-reading skills. These general language skills will transfer to make children successful readers and writers in English.

Building Literacy through Book Making

During the last several years, new teachers have often asked us for help with ELs who have become successful decoders despite comprehension skills that are significantly below grade level. When we ask questions about the context of instruction, we have often found that a teacher categorizes the child as "too shy to speak" or "speaks only when spoken to" or "generates only short phrases." We have also often discovered that classroom instruc-

tion has focused on formal reading instruction to the exclusion of oral language development. Consequently, our motive in this module was again to give teachers additional strategies for embedding reading in meaningful contexts and connecting it with classroom strategies.

We began by reading *Rosie's Walk* (Hutchins, 1987) aloud and discussing what meanings beginning level ELs would construe from this simple story. We wanted teachers to focus on the language skills needed to understand the story-line and to notice the prepositional phrases the author employs. Bridging *Rosie's Walk* to LEA, we demonstrated how a class could take a walk "out of the room," "across the playground," and so forth and use this experience to create a dictated LEA story patterned after *Rosie's Walk*. We also demonstrated how to make a slider to use in practice for retelling.[13]

Subsequently, we shared a big book generated by ELs with an innovative reformulation yet following the pattern of *Rosie's Walk*. In this instance, the children had dictated and illustrated *"Spooky's Walk"*—their own story of a cat (Spooky) who is followed by a dog as she walks along a beach. The reformulation demonstrates that the ELs had internalized the story-line of *Rosie's Walk* as well as the structure of its prepositional phrases.

As we segued into a "make and take" book construction session, we once again emphasized the use of print in context. Print use is the culmination of ELD lessons that have built oral vocabulary and language structures. Reformulations such as *"Spooky's Walk"* follow predictable patterns and challenge the creativity of ELs. Each such reformulation demonstrates the solid acquisition of regular features of the target language. Thus, in the "make and take" segment, teachers made the following books: an accordion shaped book with patterned, dictated sentences about the Gingerbread man; a triangular stand-up book for the days of the week; a step book about the animals who live in the layers of the rain forest; an origami environment book with windows through which four sea creatures can be seen; and a sequence flip-book with dictated sentences about a read-aloud story. Each new teacher then received a comprehensive packet with directions and some patterns for making many different kinds of books.

Puppet Making and Storytelling

Congruent with our philosophy about the importance of a solid oral language foundation and our concern that ELD lessons had been replaced by formal reading instruction for all students, our final module focused teachers on the use of puppets and props to accompany storytelling and retelling. Our goal was not to diminish the importance of reading for all children, but to reinforce the importance of strong oral language skills for ELs as a foundation for reading instruction.

The use of puppets and props helps make story elements clear and understandable while at the same time engaging children's attention. As children interact with puppets, they focus their attention outside of themselves. In this way, shy children may lose their anxiety about speaking. When children use a prop or puppet to aid in retelling a story they have heard in their ELD lessons, they feel safe in using language from the story that is not yet their own. Imagine the delight of holding a bear puppet and being able to shout, "Who's been sleeping in my bed?"

Moreover, such manipulatives add context to activities. When children enact parts of a story using puppets or retell an event with the assistance of a prop, they have opportunities to use skills that may be more familiar (both culturally and linguistically) than formal school skills. For others, puppets and retelling activities may be a new experience, helping these children to grow in other directions.

We showed teachers puppets made of paper, cloth, wood, plastic, found objects, and a combination of materials. Teachers observed that puppets range in size from miniatures (such as finger puppets, whether manufactured, drawn on the hand, or made of paper) to larger than life (such as those used in the Broadway production *The Lion King*). As to kinds, there are sock puppets, paper bag and paper plate puppets, stick and rod puppets, hand puppets, shadow puppets, and marionettes. Depending on the age and interest of the learners, any or all of these are appropriate in the ELD context.

Puppets provide natural repetition and redundancy. A puppet used in the telling of a story can be used again by children in formal (teacher directed) or informal instructional settings (at a classroom learning center). Students can choose from an array of puppets to retell and/or reenact a familiar story or create stories of their own. In free play, language emerges when students have access to puppets. Small groups of children can present puppet plays for one another or for another class; they can also share these stories with family members when a teacher lets them take a puppet home. Puppets can also serve as therapy: A lonely child and a puppet can engage in "conversation;" a big red dog puppet can become a friend.

In our final module, each teacher made two puppets. Though teachers had time to make only two puppets (a ladybug and a big red dog, for which we provided patterns, felt, trimmings and glue guns), patterns were provided for other puppets that they could make on their own. As teachers created these puppets, language and memories flowed—certainly, oral language was alive and well in the staff development setting.

Conclusion

Our goal for the series was to assist new teachers and their EL children by providing strategies for ELD instruction and by emphasizing the critical need for oral language development, particularly at the beginning level. We were fortunate in being able to provide materials to enhance the strategies we demonstrated, as well as some peer-support for new teachers in the area of lesson planning. Although there were only two of us instructing more than 100 module attendees, we two continue to have contact with many of the new teachers as they ask for us assistance and share with us their successes.

Evaluations from the last session of each series indicate that we met our goals and that new and inexperienced teachers benefited from the focus on the needs of ELs and strategies to meet those needs. A few sample comments from the evaluations follow:

Content/workshop topics:

"I thought the chants were very helpful because it [*sic*] went well with the curricular areas."

"I enjoyed the TRP. [*sic*] session and Magnetic Way because I could put them into practice and the materials were already given."

"I thought songs and chants were especially good because singing and chanting makes learning new vocabs [*sic*] easier. Besides, singing is one of the activities that gets eliminated when there's a shortage of time."

"The games are great fun in my class."

Strategies:

"I thought that the planning sessions were very beneficial because it [*sic*] made us aware of all the elements that should be in place for an ELD lesson."

"If there was a strategy which wasn't useful, I must have forgotten it. I've learned many things and I'm using them. If I have not done it as well as you have showed us, it will be just a matter of practice."

"If you walk into my classroom, you would find picture files, games, and Magnetic Way that I use for ELD instruction."

"After each class I went home thinking when to start doing it in my classroom."

Benefits to students:

"The children are less self-conscious about using English."

"The children feel more comfortable and confident about using English and are willing to take risks."

"When I am using the ideas and strategies I have learned from the workshops, the students are a lot more involved."

"The workshops gave me a plan to follow. I became more focused on a path of organization."

"I didn't know there was so much out there and so many possibilities of making ELD come alive. The workshops really opened my eyes!"

Included among the comments were some negative evaluations made by those who had not understood our focus on beginning ELs. Many of these respondents were disappointed that we had not provided more specific literacy strategies for writing and grammar instruction. If time and circumstances permit, another (differently focused) series would be beneficial to meet the needs of experienced teachers and the needs of intermediate and early advanced ELs.

Time will also tell of the long-lasting effect of the staff development we have concluded. We have been invited to puppet performances and have seen the Magnetic Way, matrices, and T-graphs in almost daily use. Several teachers have reported their successful inclusion of chants and lots of singing. Those we have trained are using their materials. But of the close to 700 elementary teachers in the Alhambra district (all of whom teach ELs, and most of whom are responsible for ELD lessons), only 127 have participated in the after school workshops.

The pressures on us all remain formidable. We need to articulate and implement the new ELD Standards; we need to provide appropriate materials and training for many, many new teachers; and we need to address issues of exit criteria and grade level retention. Finally, there are only seven hours in the teaching day, with limited opportunities for staff development. We have many more teachers to serve if we are to have a positive impact on all classrooms for English language learners.

Author

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Endnotes

[1] Chaozhou is a Chinese language from South China, often spoken by ethnic Chinese from Vietnam.

[2] Model programs for ELs vary from district to district: In a pull-out program, ELs leave their assigned classroom and go to a designated teacher for ELD services. In a pull-in program, the designated ELD teacher moves from classroom to classroom working with small groups of ELs.

[3] I am profoundly grateful to my colleague in the Alhambra School District, Linda Naccarato. Her vast classroom experience with elementary ELs informed every aspect of delivery for this project.

[4] As defined in the October, 1997 draft of the *English Language Development Standards,* Beginning Proficiency Level contains students who progress "from having no receptive or productive English skills to possessing a basic use of English" (California Department of Education, 1997).

[5] At the time of planning and delivering this staff development, California's standards for ELs were mired in political in-fighting. Because of the urgent need to help teachers and students, we were unable to wait for the adoption of the ELD Standards that was scheduled for Summer 1999.

[6] This language was chosen because it was not spoken by any of the teachers.

[7] Based on Ballard's (1985) Magnetic Way teaching approach, this kit consists of a magnetic "background" board upon which story "characters" (plastic overlays impregnated with metal) can be arranged. The product is not currently available from the distributor.

[8] A pocket chart is a primary grade classroom tool. It consists of lateral pockets that are open along the top and sewn onto a backing of canvas or plastic. These pockets, which are often made of clear plastic, can be used to hold small illustrations or words on a strip of paper (much as a music staff holds a line of notes, or lined paper "holds" text).

[9] Because we wanted to emphasize scaffolding for ELs in all our interactions with the teachers, we encouraged teachers to think about how they would introduce a game and its rules, in other words not merely to "play" a game but to teach children how and why a game is played.

[10] For those interested in the subject of how English sounds contrast with those of other languages, Piper's book has a non-technical chapter that may be helpful to second language instructors and curriculum developers.

[11] We glued felt to the back of a Magnetic Way board to use as a flannel board. This created a multi-purpose board. On the smooth side, the Magnetic Way pieces adhere; on the felt side, flannel or felt pieces adhere. The mechanism of putting pieces on and off the board is similar, as are the stimulation and immediate engagement of the children.

[12] For those unfamiliar with Dixon & Nessel's (1983) Language Experience Approach, its strategy can be described thus: After students have experienced an activity (for example, petting a rabbit), they are encouraged to talk about it. The teacher guides this conversation for the purpose of building vocabulary and structures to encode the experience. Subsequently, the students dictate sentences about the experience. As each child dictates, the teacher repeats and writes his or her words (e.g., "Oanh said, *I like the rabbit.*"). From this dictation, the child builds the concept that print come from speech, that what is spoken can be written.

Because their experience and their own words are important to children, a sense of ownership enables them to find their own words and repeat (or "read") them to the teacher. Many activities can then build upon this single sentence. Depending on the child's age, ability, and the teacher's selection of appropriate activities, the sentence can be illustrated, cut-apart, reassembled, added-to, modified, copied, and so forth. These repeated activities serve to create for the children an individualized lexicon of words that they recognize by sight, such as: their names, high frequency words like "and" and "the," simple verbs like "said" and "like," and high interest vocabulary words such as "rabbit."

[13] A slider is a piece of tag board cut with slits that hold phrases that can be slid in and out of view. In this instance, the stationary sentence stem was "Our class walked" and the sliding prepositional phrases used to complete the sentence included "out of the room," "across the playground," and so forth.

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Appendix A
ELD Progress Profile

ALHAMBRA SCHOOL DISTRICT
ENGLISH LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT PROGRESS PROFILE K-8

To be passed on to next year's teacher until all skills are mastered.

Name: (Last) _____ (First) _____ Student I.D. Number _____ Primary Language _____

BEGINNING
ELD 1/PRE-PRODUCTION

Date Grade Teacher School L_ Instr.

_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____ _____

EXIT CRITERIA (Mark with date completed)

Listening [student consistently]
- _____ Demonstrates understanding by responding to simple instructions and/or directions
- _____ Participates in group activities
- _____ Demonstrates understanding by manipulating objects or pictures
- _____ Comprehends simple face to face conversations

Speaking [student consistently]
- _____ Responds nonverbally by gesturing and imitating
- _____ Responds with yes/no or one word responses
- _____ Uses words to meet personal needs
- _____ Participates in a group setting

Reading [student consistently]
- _____ Practices reader-like behavior
- _____ Recognizes environmental print

Writing [student consistently]
- _____ Writes name
- _____ Illustrates to convey meaning
- _____ *Uses "writing" to convey meaning

EXIT:
Date Grade Teacher School

_____ _____ _____ _____

LAS RESULTS

Date	Grade	Level	Date	Grade	Level
____	____	____	____	____	____
____	____	____	____	____	____
____	____	____	____	____	____

BEGINNING
ELD 2/EARLY PRODUCTION

Date Grade Teacher School L_ Instr.

_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____ _____

EXIT CRITERIA (Mark with date completed)

Listening [student consistently]
- _____ Demonstrates understanding instructions and directions
- _____ Demonstrates understanding of social interactions/conversation in a small group
- _____ Demonstrates comprehension of stories through active listening/participation

Speaking [student consistently]
- _____ Responds/participates with phrases and simple sentences
- _____ Recites simple poems, songs, chants, and rhymes

Reading [student consistently]
- _____ Repeats simple text and/or repetitive pattern
- _____ Participates in Shared Reading
- _____ Demonstrates some comprehension of story using simple language
- _____ Identifies some words and letters

Writing [student consistently]
- _____ Produces patterned writing
- _____ *Uses "writing" to convey meaning

EXIT:
Date Grade Teacher School

_____ _____ _____ _____

Affix Redisignation Sticker Here

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EARLY INTERMEDIATE
ELD 3A/SPEECH EMERGENCE

Date Grade Teacher School L_ Instr.

_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____ _____

EXIT CRITERIA (Mark with date completed)

Listening [student consistently]
- _____ Demonstrates understanding of multi-step directions appropriate to grade level
- _____ Demonstrates understanding of social language
- _____ Demonstrates understanding of story elements in a familiar story

Speaking [student consistently]
- _____ Engages in social conversations
- _____ Actively participates in dramatics and retelling of a familiar story
- _____ Dictates Language Experience stories
- _____ Responds in sentences through coaching

Reading [student consistently]
- _____ Shows interest and chooses own reading material
- _____ Demonstrates phonemic awareness
- _____ Exhibits use of cueing systems for unfamiliar text (semantic, syntactic, graphophonic) during Shared Reading
- _____ Independently reads simple text/stories with rehearsal
- _____ Retells stories in sequence
- _____ Demonstrates comprehension by responding orally

Writing [student consistently]
- _____ Produces Language Experience stories
- _____ Uses phonetic spelling
- _____ Fills in graphic organizers with guidance
- _____ *Prewrites, drafts, and does simple editing for mechanics with guidance

EXIT:
Date Grade Teacher School

_____ _____ _____ _____

Appendix ELD Progress Profile

Name: (Last) _____ (First) _____

INTERMEDIATE
ELD 3B/SPEECH EMERGENCE

Date Grade Teacher School L_ Instr.

_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____ _____

EARLY ADVANCED
ELD 4/IMMEDIATE FLUENCY

Date Grade Teacher School L_ Instr.

_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____ _____

ADVANCED
ELD 5/ADVANCED FLUENCY

Date Grade Teacher School L_ Instr.

_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____ _____
_____ _____ _____ _____ _____

STUDENT NOW RECEIVES GUIDED READING INSTRUCTION (RUNNING RECORDS ARE APPROPRIATE)

EXIT CRITERIA (Mark with date completed)

Listening [student consistently]
- _____ Demonstrates understanding of complex directions at age appropriate level
- _____ Demonstrates understanding of academic language
- _____ Demonstrates understanding of story elements in an unfamiliar story

Speaking [student consistently]
- _____ Engages in academic conversations
- _____ Actively participates in dramatics, story telling, and presentations through speaking roles
- _____ Generates sentences spontaneously

Reading [student consistently]
- _____ *Exhibits use of cueing systems (semantic, syntactic, graphophonic) for unfamiliar text during Guided and Independent Reading
- _____ Independently reads simple text/stories
- _____ Retells stories in sequence with elaboration
- _____ Demonstrates comprehension by responding in writing in at least two ways

Writing [student consistently]
- _____ Combines phonetic spelling with conventional spelling
- _____ Creates graphic organizers across the curriculum
- _____ Prewrites and drafts independently
- _____ *Writes original stories and/or paragraphs
- _____ Revises and edits with guidance

EXIT:
Date Grade Teacher School

_____ _____ _____ _____

EXIT CRITERIA (Mark with date completed)

Listening [student consistently]
- _____ Demonstrates understanding of social language at native-like English level
- _____ Comprehends detailed information with minimal contextual clues on unfamiliar topics
- _____ Demonstrates understanding of academic language/concepts at native-like English level

Speaking [student consistently]
- _____ Initiates and sustains spontaneous and structured language interactions
- _____ Expresses native-like English in social and academic discussions and learning activities
- _____ Articulates feelings, observations, and experiences during social and academic interactions
- _____ Selects appropriate and/or precise vocabulary to express ideas

Reading [student consistently]
- _____ Comprehends and responds to literary works in a variety of genres beyond a literal level with native-like English fluency
- _____ Reads and responds in the content areas with instructional scaffolding
- _____ Transfers information from text into given formats
- _____ Meets grade level criteria in reading

Writing [student consistently]
- _____ Writes in grade level domains for specific audience using all stages of the writing process
- _____ Uses conventions of writing at native-like English level
- _____ Self-monitors for regular features of English syntax

EXIT:
Date Grade Teacher School

_____ _____ _____ _____

EXIT CRITERIA (Mark with date completed)

Listening [student consistently]
- _____ Exhibits understanding of social language at native-like English level
- _____ Demonstrates understanding of academic language/concepts at native-like English level
- _____ Comprehends abstract topics and recognizes language subtleties in a variety of communicative settings

Speaking [student consistently]
- _____ Demonstrates fluency in academic and social situations
- _____ Demonstrates the use of an expansive vocabulary
- _____ Uses native-like pronunciation and intonation

Reading [student consistently]
- _____ Reads, comprehends, and responds independently to literary works in a wide variety of genres beyond a literal level with native-like English
- _____ Reads and responds independently in the content areas
- _____ Demonstrates ability to compare, contrast, and analyze works of literature

Writing [student consistently]
- _____ Writes with native-like fluency for a wide variety of purposes and audiences across content areas
- _____ Applies consistent use of mechanics, grammar, syntax, and spelling at native-like English levels

EXIT:
Date Grade Teacher School

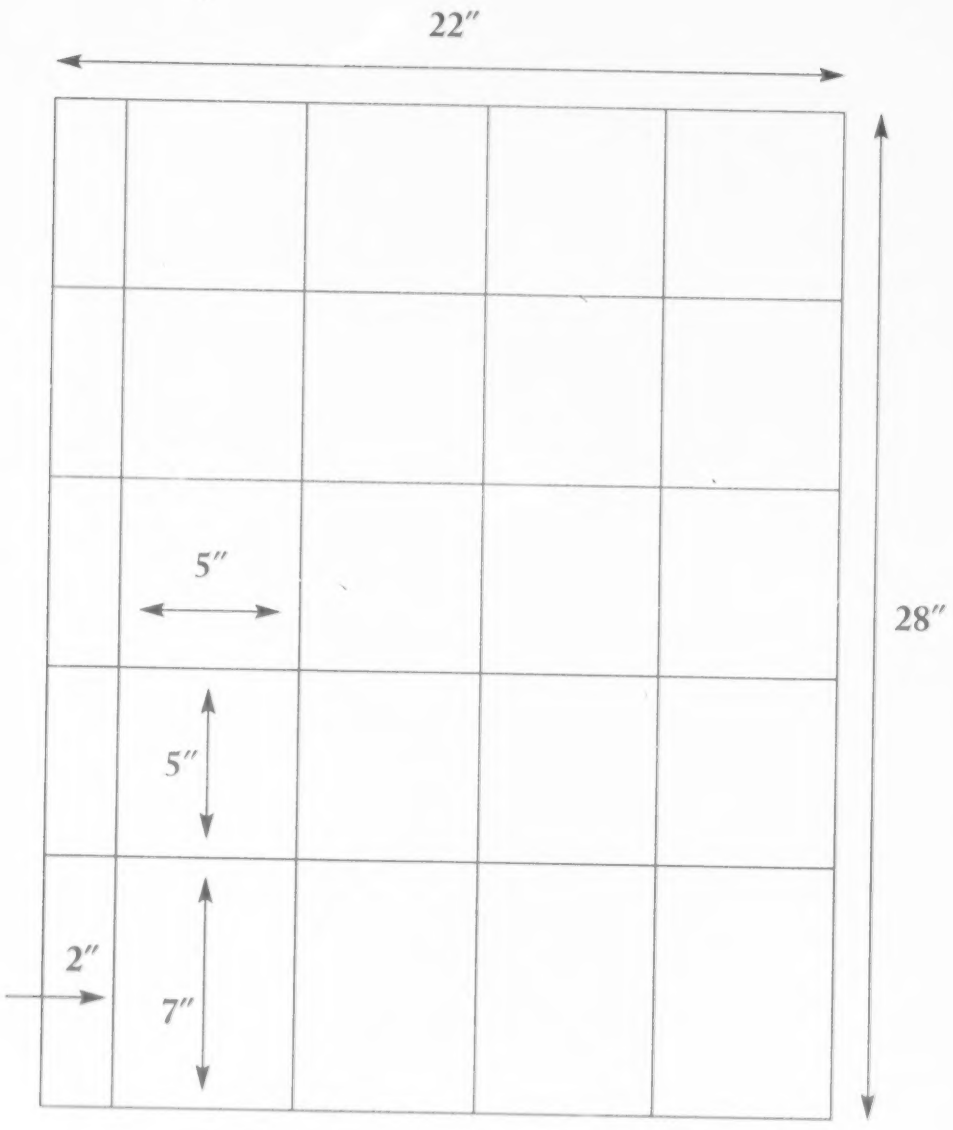
_____ _____ _____ _____

*** Denotes the need for student work sample**
Waiver on file, updated annually. Dates: _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

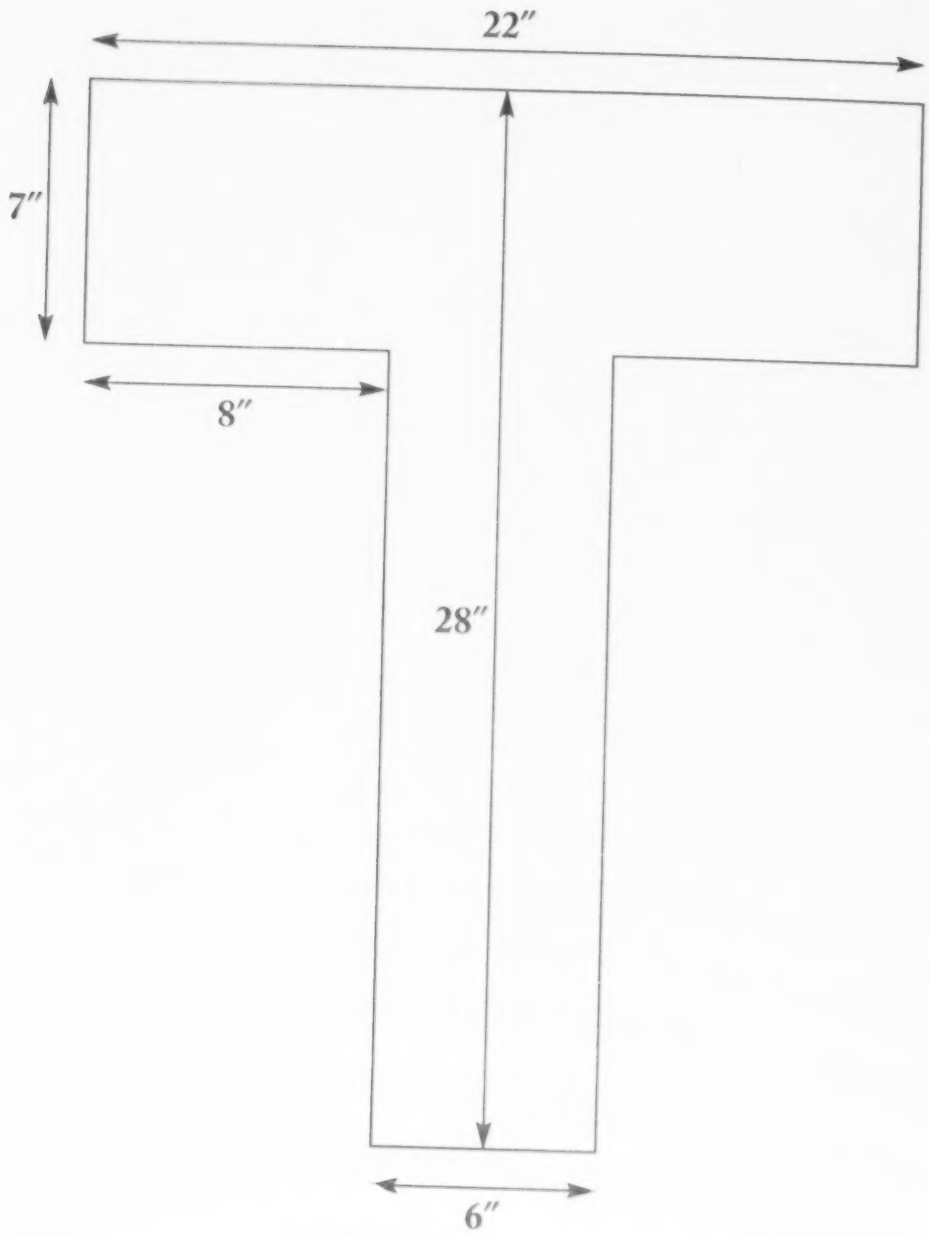
Appendix B Matrix Demonstration

	hooves	claws	horns	tusks
illustration or word elephant	no	no	no	yes
illustration or word zebra	yes	no	no	no
illustration or word water buffalo	yes	no	yes	no
illustration or word lion	no	yes	no	no

Appendix C Matrix/T-Graph Dimensions



Appendix C Matrix/T-Graph Dimensions



Appendix D **Lesson Planning Frame**

Beginning ELD
Grade level: *Kindergarten*

Lesson focus: Arctic animals on the Magnetic Way board

Subject area (circle one): ELD Science Health Social Studies

Target vocabulary (limited to 7-10 words):

water ice polar bear seal fish cold

Target structures (receptive understanding of commands, yes/no or either/or; single word answers):

point to show me put in take out put on
Is... ? What is this? Who has?

Lesson sequence:

What will the Teacher do?	**What will the Students do?**
I'll put the water piece and the animals on the board.	They will listen as I name the items.
I'll identify each and distribute them.	Each child will hold one of the pieces.
I'll ask who's holding each piece.	The children will point to or hold up the pieces I name.
I'll put the pieces back on the board. I'll ask children to point to the pieces.	The children will point to the pieces as I tell them to show or point.
I'll put the animals in the water and take them out.	The children will follow my demonstration and my question.
I'll use the target vocabulary.	After repeated practice with the figures, I expect the children to answer questions about the names of animals, in/out of the water; on/off the ice.

Appendix E Lesson Planning Map

TPR
- identify characters from the story
- teacher tells the story with cutout pictures on the MW board
- students retell the story with ... pictures on the MW board with teacher assistance

Vocabulary Building Games
- sequence story pictures on a storyboard
- play bingo with characters and items from the story
- play "Go Fish" with characters

Graphs or Matrices
- T-graph "do you like Gingerbread" yes/no
- bar graph the answers to the yes/no survey; bar graph favorite purchased cookies
- matrix cookie types and ingredients

The Gingerbread Man
Addison-Wesley
Big Book

Picture File or Realia Support
- sort cookies/pictures by type, size shape, etc.
- select cookie pictures from an array including cake, pie, doughnut, crackers, etc.
- taste gingerbread or ginger cookies
- make gingerbread men

Music and Movement
- chant the story refrain
- chant "who stole the cookies..."

Chants, *Let's Chant, Let's Sing*

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The CATESOL Journal

SARA FIELDS
Linwood E. Howe Elementary School

After Proposition 227: Crises, Challenges, and Concerns

Proponents of California Ballot Proposition 227 claimed that it would end bilingual education and facilitate the effective teaching of English to all California school children (English for the Children, 1998a). Opponents argued that the enactment of this proposition would hurt students, slow down their progress, and destroy existing and effective programs. As the first school year following the passage of Proposition 227 came to a close, what impact had been made by the passage of this proposition in California schools?

A colloquium held at CATESOL's state conference in Reno in April 1999 addressed this question. Panelists and conference attendees representing urban, suburban and rural districts discussed the current situation in the field, the recommendations of the California Department of Education (CDE) Proposition 227 task force that was appointed by the Superintendent of Public Instruction, and the ways in which schools and districts have implemented this new law. This article will highlight the range of practices and responses.

Background

As of March 1, 1998, there were 1,406,166 K-12 students designated as Limited English Proficient (LEP) in California public schools (California Department of Education, Educational Demographics Unit [CDE/EDU], 1998). LEP students come from homes where a language other than English is spoken. When assessed at school entry, they are designated as deficient in the oral and literacy skills in English needed to succeed in the mainstream curriculum without special support. LEP students are monitored as they progress toward redesignation as Fluent English Proficient (FEP). In order to be redesignated as FEP, students must score at the fluent level on a state approved oral English proficiency test and meet district criteria of achievement in English, demonstrated through standardized tests and classroom

performance. Once redesignated, students no longer receive specialized language support services (Dunlap & Fields, 1997).

Prior to the passage of Proposition 227, schools were required to offer appropriate services to LEP students (California Department of Education [CDE], 1993). In order to ensure that students learned the core curriculum while they acquired English, students were to receive academic instruction in their home language along with instruction in English Language Development (ELD). This approach of using the student's home language for instruction at least part of the day is familiarly known as bilingual education. However, because of student demographics, a shortage of appropriately prepared teachers, and a lack of district and community support, significant numbers of California's LEP students did not receive any form of bilingual education.

In California in 1998, the schools reported that 29% of all LEP students (409,879 students) were in bilingual education programs incorporating English Language Development and instruction in the students' home language. Another 22% of the LEP students (305,764 students) were in programs with home language support (CDE/EDU, 1998). "Home language support" usually means that the curriculum and course work are in English, but that an instructional aide or teacher who speaks the student's language is available to preview or review the material and to offer additional explanation when necessary. In such programs, students may also have access to textbooks in their own language to supplement the English texts.

Proposition 227 changed the terminology from LEP student to English Learner (EL). The proposition took a different approach to the education of these students. It called for a one-year program of intensive English instruction called Structured English Immersion (SEI) that would bring students to "reasonable fluency" or "a good working knowledge" of English (English for the Children, 1998b). ELs would then be placed in mainstream English classrooms. However, the proposition allows schools to continue to offer bilingual programs when parents of at least 20 students per grade level request it by completing a waiver at the school site.

SEI is not well defined in law. Proposition 227 states:

> "Sheltered English immersion" or "structured English immersion" means an English language acquisition process for young children in which nearly all classroom instruction is in English but with the curriculum and presentation designed for children who are learning the language. (English for the Children, 1998b)

In discussion, the proponents of the proposition seemed to envision a year-long intensive English class for students, after which ELs would have the fluency necessary to function in mainstream classrooms.

Intensive English instruction is widely used for adults in both military language programs and in Intensive English Programs that prepare foreign students for study in United States colleges and universities. In these situations, adults who already have well-developed first language skills and who have age-appropriate knowledge and abilities choose to dedicate a period of time to mastering an additional language. For children, however, the situation is quite different because they are still developing their command of their first language (L1). These children must also devote time to learning how to read or to improving their knowledge of reading; they must continue learning age- and grade-appropriate mathematics, science, and social studies; and as immigrants or children of immigrants, they must learn how to function in a new culture.

These tasks are different for students depending upon their age, L1 skills, and educational background at the time of their entry into the U. S. educational system. For example, the needs and progress of a kindergarten student will be different from the needs of a student transferring from a high school in Mexico City, even though both are monolingual Spanish speakers. The high school student has a well-developed base of L1 literacy and content knowledge as well as a good sense of what schooling entails; the kindergartner, in contrast, is still developing oral language and literacy.

A provision of Proposition 227 that raised concerns during the campaign for its passage was the provision specifically stating that districts are encouraged to place in the same classroom students of different grades and from different language backgrounds, but with similar levels of English proficiency. During the campaign, opponents charged that this would require schools to place newly arrived fourth and fifth graders from various countries in the same classrooms with kindergartners.

CDE collects data from school districts about the numbers of ELs and the forms of instruction they receive. In March of each year, districts fill out the R-30 Language Census that is reported to the CDE. The report includes the numbers of EL and FEP students at each grade level and segregated by home language; the instructional program of each EL student; and the number of qualified teachers and instructional aides providing services to EL students.

The report places students receiving services into four categories: ELD only; ELD and Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE)[1]; ELD and SDAIE with home language support; and ELD and academic subjects through the home language. The latter two categories are forms of bilingual education. Schools must also report on the number of students not receiving any of the above services. For 1999, the CDE asked schools not only to report on the number of students enrolled in programs in each of the above categories but also to report the number of students in

SEI, the number with reasonable fluency in mainstream classes, and the number of students not receiving ELD services.

Within the categories prescribed by CDE, instruction to students is actually delivered in several ways. Some students may be in a classroom with only EL students; others may be mixed with students from English speaking families. Students may receive special instruction from their own classroom teacher, from another teacher through a team-teaching approach, or they may leave the classroom for part of the day to work with a special teacher in an approach called "pull-out". Secondary students are usually in departmentalized classes with other ELs for varying parts of the school day. The Language Census does not collect any data on the ways in which instruction is actually delivered to these students.

The 1999 CDE Language Census data was released in Fall 1999. As of March 1, 1999, there were 1,442,692 EL students in California schools K-12. Only 12% of this population (169,440 students), however, were in bilingual education programs incorporating instruction in the students' first language (CDE/EDU, 1999). Another 33% of the LEP students (472,893 students) were in programs with home language support, as permitted within Structured English Immersion under Proposition 227. These data indicate a significant drop of 17% in the number of students receiving direct instruction in their home language since the passage of the proposition, and a smaller drop of 6% in the total number receiving some form of assistance in their home language. The comparison between the 1999 and 1998 data is shown in the following table.

Table 1
Comparison of 1998 and 1999 Data on Bilingual Education in California

Educational settings for English Learners in California	1998	1999
Total number of English Learners	1,406,166	1,442,692
Number receiving academic instruction in home language	409,879	169,440
Percentage receiving academic instruction in home language	29%	12%
Number receiving support in home language	305,764	472,893
Percentage receiving support in home language	22%	33%
Total receiving some form of bilingual education	715,643	642,333
Percentage receiving some form of bilingual education	51%	45%

(Source: California Department of Education Language Census)

These data are highly significant in light of previous research indicating that programs that develop the students' primary language to a high degree are the most likely to lead to long-term academic success (Thomas & Collier, 1997).

Teachers' answers to a questionnaire distributed at the 1999 CATESOL convention (Appendix) indicates that most of the organization's K-12 members work in districts or schools that offered little or no bilingual education prior to the passage of Proposition 227. Given this fact, the discussion in this article will center on the consequences of the implementation of this proposition rather than address the reduction of home language development programs. This is by no means intended to minimize the short and long-term consequences of failure to support students' ongoing language and literacy development in the languages of their homes.

The Colloquium

For the colloquium of the 1999 CATESOL Conference, panelists were selected representing urban, rural, and suburban districts in Northern, Southern, and Central California. The panelists included Lydia Stack, Administrator of the San Francisco Unified School District (USD); Bruce Berryhill, Director of State and Federal Projects at Dinuba USD; and Sara Fields, English Language Development/Bilingual Specialist for the Culver City USD. A questionnaire (Appendix) was developed and sent in advance to the panelists; the questionnaire was also distributed to audience members, who were encouraged to complete it. The next section of this article will summarize the responses of the panelists and audience members to each of the questions.

Effect of Proposition 227 on bilingual education

San Francisco USD, with 19,099 ELs comprising 31% of total its enrollment, now has slightly more students enrolled in bilingual programs than it did prior to the passage of 227. This may be the result of a high level of parent and community support for multilingual abilities, as well as a result of the district's demonstration of high student achievement within the variety of bilingual programs offered. San Francisco Unified is in an unusual situation because the district is under court order to continue specific language development programs, including bilingual programs, as they existed before Proposition 227 passed.

Culver City USD has 5951 students, with 1215 ELs comprising 20% of its enrollment. Prior to 227, the district enrolled 203 ELs in bilingual education at two of its five elementary schools. After 227, not enough optional waivers to the requirements of the proposition were completed by

parents to offer bilingual programs at any grade level in either school. Prior to 227, a third school—El Marino Language School—offered two-way Spanish and Japanese Immersion classes.

These two-way immersion classes[2] served native English speakers and English learners, with the curriculum taught primarily in the target language (Spanish or Japanese) but with increasing amounts of English, and a goal of total biliteracy by fifth grade. In 1998, 72 ELs participated in this program. The district was able to preserve this magnet program using parental waivers.

Finally, Dinuba USD, in the San Joaquin Valley, had an enrollment of 4896 with 1051 (21%) K-12 LEP students prior to the passage of Proposition 227. At that time, Dinuba offered no formal bilingual programs, but provided home language assistance for literate students. After the passage of 227, Dinuba restructured its ELD program to provide intensive SEI for students during the first year, with ongoing support in later years.

Definition and implementation of elementary SEI

Culver City has placed students at the two lowest proficiency levels in English, as determined by a state-approved language proficiency instrument in the SEI program. These students are assigned to mainstream classrooms and receive supplemental ELD services from an ELD specialist through a pull-out model. When possible, these students are assigned to a classroom taught by a teacher with a Crosscultural, Language and Academic Development (CLAD) credential; holders of these credentials have preparation in adapting instruction to meet the needs of ELs.

Dinuba has established that the goal for Structured English Immersion is for students "to teach/learn/acquire as much English as possible within a one-year time frame" (B. Berryhill, personal communication). Instructional components of SEI include guided practice in listening and speaking; explicit literacy instruction; comprehensible experiential reading; thematic instruction through comprehensible English with grade level content; and primary language support. Students may be served within a self-contained classroom or within the mainstream classroom, depending on school demographics.

Effects of Proposition 227 on secondary schools

In contrast to elementary schools, relatively little bilingual instruction was offered in secondary schools before the passage of Proposition 227. However, secondary students typically participated in departmentalized courses that could last three to four years or more (e.g., ELD 1, ELD 2, ELD 3, etc.). Proposition 227 mandated SEI "not normally to exceed one year"—however, the law also requires "additional and appropriate support" and many districts

are struggling to define what that support might be (CDE, 1999a). In many cases, it seems to be simply that the mainstream subject matter teacher has had some kind of training to work with English learners.

San Francisco continues to require two periods of ELD for students at all levels, one of which consists of grade-level content. Culver City Middle School was to begin a new program in 1999-2000: Students formerly placed in ELD 3 classes were to be assigned to mainstream classes taught by CLAD-credentialed teachers, with a coordinator to monitor their progress. Dinuba restructured its secondary education, placing beginners and intermediate learners in grades 7 and 8 in self-contained ELD classes for one school year, with SDAIE.

In this program, advanced students are placed in mainstream classrooms with SDAIE as needed. High school students have a self-contained program, three classes per term for two terms. This program includes intensive ELD, SDAIE, and home language support. Thereafter, students take mainstream classes but with an extra English acquisition/tutorial class. Moreover, Dinuba is working to provide additional and appropriate services after the initial year to enable students to succeed. By contrast, a CATESOL member reports that, in one extreme case, a middle school in Los Angeles Unified simply eliminated all its ELD 2, 3, and 4 courses and reassigned the students to mainstream classes.

Many other schools seem to be offering far less ELD after the first year. While in the past, the approach was to keep the students in special classes with specially trained teachers until they were judged able to succeed in mainstream classes, the trend seems to be to get them into the mainstream faster. One respondent reported that secondary English learners now receive no more than one year of ESL, as opposed to the maximum of three years before 227.

Materials for SEI

In 1991 and again in 1996, the state of California adopted ELD materials for K-8 that are still widely used (CDE, 1997). However, these materials were designed for use during the ELD period, not to cover the core curriculum in a comprehensive manner. In other words, these materials were designed to develop students' English listening and speaking vocabulary and to develop some reading and writing skills but not to deliver the appropriate literature, mathematics, science, and social studies concepts for the students' grade level. The 1996 materials, in particular, incorporate some key age-appropriate science and social studies topics and a little mathematics. For the rest of the day, mainstream science, social studies, math, and reading texts are being used, with instructional adapta-

tions. Guidelines are under consideration for the development of new English Language Arts and English Language Development materials, to be available for adoption by districts in 2002.

San Francisco USD has developed a new curriculum guide and has adopted materials from the state approved ELD list (CDE, 1997). Culver City USD and Dinuba USD also use materials from this list. Dinuba also uses leveled trade books and library books in English and Spanish, in addition to supplemental ELD materials.

One audience member mentioned using the district adopted Houghton Mifflin Language Arts materials that have good support strategies included in the supplemental handbooks devoted to the needs of ELs. This raises the question of whether students are receiving any differentiated, targeted ELD or whether they are only receiving the mainstream English Language Arts curriculum with adaptations for second language learners.

Many respondents mentioned Hampton Brown, one of the series on the 1996 ELD adoption list (CDE, 1997). Others are still using older programs such as Santillana's *Bridge to Communication*, from the 1991 ELD list, and even *IDEA*, a program widely used about fifteen years ago. Responding to the question "Do you have materials?" one respondent said, "Yes, personally; no, districtwide." Reflecting a common practice in the field, another respondent uses "various things I make up and receive free at conventions".

The Division of Instruction of Los Angeles USD studied available materials and developed a list of additional structured English immersion instructional materials not already recommended by the state (Deputy Superintendent, Instruction and Curriculum, Los Angeles Unified School District, 1999). These materials are "appropriate for English-as-a-Second-Language instruction and academic instruction in health, history-social science, mathematics and science. The materials support English language proficiency in listening, speaking, reading and writing and assist students in achieving academic standards and content instruction" (p. 1).

In a section entitled "Adapting existing instructional materials to the needs of structured English immersion", the memorandum issued by the Deputy Superintendent detailing the results of this study noted:

> Textbooks and instructional materials are tools that must be adapted by teachers to meet the needs of students in structured English immersion Models A and B. As teachers plan lessons that prepare students for English literacy and achievement in the core curriculum, they must consider two aspects of student development: (1) the students' linguistic readiness to learn a new concept or skill in English, and (2) the students' prior knowledge of the concept or skill in English or in the primary language.

> When it is linguistically appropriate, teachers should plan instruction and activities that will prepare students to use current textbooks and materials successfully. Materials designed for mainstream English speakers may be adapted for use by English learners at appropriate levels of English proficiency by selecting segments of text for discussion, by using photographs, graphs and other visuals to build context for understanding text, and by focusing on one idea or skill, rather than several at one time. (p. 3)

Teacher training after Proposition 227

With growing numbers of ELs, and with many more of these students in mainstream classes, there is an increased need for teacher training. In California, teachers providing ELD or core curriculum such as math, science, or social studies through SDAIE are required to have certification that authorizes these types of instruction. This has not changed since the passage of Proposition 227. Options include the CLAD or BCLAD credential.[3] Most teachers entering the profession in the past few years, and some veteran teachers, hold these credentials. However, because many veteran teachers had increasing numbers of ELs in their classrooms and did not wish to enroll in university programs or take the examinations to get these additional credentials, the California Legislature passed Senate Bill (S.B.) 1969 (Teacher Credentialing Act, 1999).

S.B. 1969 inserted language into the state Education Code Section 44253 and California Code of Regulations, Title 5, Sections 80680 through 80690, to provide certification options for teachers who were permanent employees of a school district, county office of education, or a school administered under the authority of the Superintendent of Public Instruction as of January 1, 1995. This certification attaches to the teacher's base credential. It authorizes a teacher with a multiple subject credential, teaching in a self-contained classroom, to provide ELD and SDAIE core curriculum. A teacher holding a single subject credential is authorized to provide that subject area through SDAIE for ELs.

Under S.B. 1969, school districts can provide their own training and certify their own teachers using a program that requires fewer hours of study than the regular B/CLAD credential. The training content, instructors, and assessment measures must meet the guidelines in the California Code of Regulations. Unlike all other California teaching certificates and credentials, this certificate can only be issued by a school district or a county office of education, not an institution of higher education.

Colloquium participants cited several sources of training. San Francisco USD offers extensive teacher training, coordinated by the District Language

Academy. Teachers and schools can choose from a menu of opportunities including B/CLAD and S.B.1969 training. Special workshops are also offered to teachers in the areas of ELD, SDAIE, teaching in the home language, teaching of reading, content areas, and general literacy and language development. Many audience members at the colloquium indicated that their districts have trained all teachers through S.B. 1969. Other audience members mentioned CLAD training offered through universities, school districts, and county offices of education, professional conferences, and workshops.

Teachers in K-12 education normally work with students from early morning to mid-afternoon, five days a week, 36 to 40 weeks per year. Ongoing professional development such as collaborative work and training in working with special needs populations such as ELs has traditionally been done on "in-service" days throughout the year. On these days, teachers come to work and are paid, but students do not come to school. Because of public and legislative concerns with increasing student achievement, recent legislative action has limited the number of these days that can be scheduled, leaving even less "in-service" time to address the needs of English learners.

Positive and Negative Outcomes of Proposition 227

Many participants mentioned positive outcomes as a result of the implementation of Proposition 227. Some participants reported that because of the proposition, there is greater parent awareness and support for language programs. Another positive outcome cited was that there is now greater administrator and teacher awareness of ELs and their needs. One audience member commented, "Greater district wide awareness of the necessity to improve EL student performance. Mainstream core curriculum teachers have been more aware of the topic and instead of nodding heads politely when I talk, they listen, discuss and debate the issue...the principal is way more responsive to EL student needs."

A few participants reported increased student achievement in English. Comments included: "Growth in learning English by students; community support." "Students in grades two through five are getting better structured instruction in English spelling and writing mechanics. Our previous transition program was a bit haphazard."

Negative outcomes for parents were also cited by the panelists and audience members. In San Francisco, the campaign for the proposition caused some parents to doubt the value of bilingualism and the bilingual program, thus creating a need for additional parent education. Other negative outcomes included a potential decrease in self-esteem due to the lack of seeing the home language supported at school; a transition from Spanish to English that was too abrupt for many students; and parent/family backlash

against bilingual instruction and bilingualism. An audience member commented, "Parents feel frustrated—they have difficulty helping their children with all the work in English."

For teachers, negative outcomes included frustration; confusing directives from administrators; "hyperimplementation" of the proposition (e.g., teachers being directed to stop using the home language to clarify and support instruction); and resistance among mainstream teachers towards assuming an increased responsibility for EL students.

Perhaps the most serious negative outcomes cited were those for students. Audience members expressed doubts that ELD instruction can be accelerated to the degree assumed by Proposition 227. Comments included: "Move all the kids through ESL in two years?" "Less prepared students are being mainstreamed. Students are slipping through the cracks" and "Students who are not really ready for mainstreamed classes because they lack academic language and cognitive abilities can get into those classes now, and we as a school are in no way prepared to help them should their test scores and grades fail. We currently lack staff to even do the required follow-up." As one audience member summarized, "Districts, teachers and parents are really confused and frustrated and afraid of the unknown."

Conclusion

The responses cited in the previous section reflect the perspective of the three panelists and of the individual teachers and administrators who attended CATESOL's colloquium in Reno, representing a reasonable cross-section of districts in terms of size and location within California.

CDE conducted a survey of school districts on the implementation of Proposition 227. Responses were gathered from September 1998 to March 1999, with a report issued to district and county superintendents and other interested parties in May 1999. Survey results were consistent with the responses of the colloquium participants in that a need for greater professional preparation was cited as well as a tremendous range of practices in implementation.

On September 3, 1998, Delaine Eastin, Superintendent of Public Instruction for California, convened a 35 member Proposition 227 Task Force. The charge of the task force was to develop recommendations to guide school districts in providing high quality programs for English learners within the parameters of Proposition 227. The co-chairs of the task force were Vera Vignes, Superintendent, Pasadena USD, and Roberto Moreno, Superintendent, Calexico USD. Members included classroom teachers, principals, superintendents, university professors, school board members, parents, community members, business representatives, and rep-

resentatives of professional organizations. The report of the task force was released to the public in February 2000 (CDE, 1999a).

The task force report addressed the issues of home language support, timing for SEI, materials, and teacher training. The report stressed that EL students need to achieve high content standards in the core subjects in addition to advanced levels of English language proficiency. Students need qualified teachers, ideally with CLAD certification, and current materials. In addition, the report stressed that students must have appropriate support for as long as they need it beyond the one year targeted in the language of the proposition.

It is obvious from the discussion above that the situation in the field is far from ideal. After the first year of implementation of Proposition 227, there is a wide range of instructional practices, with key elements still being developed and disseminated. Teachers with preparation ranging from none to extensive are grappling with a new system for the education of ELs at a time of other significant changes in public education. There is a lack of appropriate materials to deliver the entire range of the curriculum, and a limited use of the materials that already exist.

As of the time of this writing, during the second year of implementation, little had changed. No additional guidelines for implementation have been developed or disseminated. The Task Force report, completed in 1999, was only beginning to be distributed to the public in the spring of 2000. No new materials were in evidence, and new ELD materials will not be available until the 2002 adoption year.

However, ELD Standards have now been developed and adopted by the California State Board of Education, and teachers and administrators are being trained to use these standards (CDE, 1999b). Additionally, a new test designed to measure students' growth in proficiency in English and in the core curriculum is under development. This test is tied to the ELD standards.

It is impossible to separate the implementation of Proposition 227 from the other changes going on in public K-12 education in California. Class size reduction has offered most students in grades K-3 the opportunity to be in a class with only 20 students and one teacher, instead of 30 to 35; however, in the urban districts where many ELs attend school, that teacher might have little or no training in basic teaching methods, let alone the special methods needed to instruct ELs.

For the first time in many years, as a result of the booming economy, money is flowing into the schools—money for building and renovating schools, buying new library books and textbooks, extending the school day, and offering summer and intersession classes to help struggling students. These efforts cannot fail to help ELs, although urban districts in overcrowded areas are not always able to take advantage of these new funds; for

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example, in schools already at full capacity, class size reduction funds are often used to put two teachers in a classroom with 40 students instead of having two classes of 20.

A further complicating factor is the admirable tendency of teachers to make the best of whatever conditions they encounter. Given the provisions of Proposition 227, teachers and administrators have struggled to create programs that use appropriate methodology. An example is the creation of SEI programs in which students spend part of the day studying core subjects in a mainstream classroom, with another part of the day devoted to intensive ELD.

It is possible that some of the positive outcomes, along with other positive changes in education such as smaller classes, better facilities, and more learning time, will counteract the negative effects of Proposition 227. Perhaps, in years to come, we will see increased numbers of students redesignated and higher achievement in the core curriculum for our ELs. Perhaps we will also see better high school graduation rates and increased enrollment in institutions of higher education for ELs. However, in order to achieve these goals, professional organizations such as CATESOL must disseminate best practices and help teachers and administrators create programs to help our students learn English and achieve in school.

Author

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Endnotes

[1] Specially Designed Academic Instruction in English (SDAIE) is a teaching approach used to make content comprehensible to ELs with intermediate fluency (California Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, 1992).

[2] In two-way immersion classes, first language (L1) speakers begin by receiving the majority of their instruction in the second language (L2); the L1 is gradually introduced into the curriculum until it comprises approximately 50% of the instruction. Also enrolled in the program are LEP students who come from the L2 background. For the LEP students, who provide a native-speaker model for the other students, the program provides bilingual instruction (Genessee, 1997).

Thus, the language majority students begin with immersion in their L2 while the language majority students first build a foundation in their native language before encountering the majority language (Brisk, 1998). Two-way immersion programs have as a secondary goal a lessening of social distance between language majority and language minority students (Samway & McKeon, 1999).

[3] The Crosscultural, Language and Academic Development (CLAD) and the Bilingual, Crosscultural, Language and Academic Development (BCLAD) certificates are credentials that authorize teachers to provide certain types of instruction to EL students. For teachers who already have a basic credential, the CLAD and BCLAD are additional certificates that attach to that credential.

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Appendix
Questionnaire Presented to Attendees at 1999 CATESOL Conference

1. What is the percentage of EL students in your district?
   What languages are represented?

   How much bilingual education existed in your district before 227? (Percentage of eligible students, number of schools w/bilingual programs vs. non-bilingual programs)

   How much bilingual education remains after 227? (Same measure)

   What factors influenced that?

   Is your district's experience typical of districts in your area with similar demographics?

2. How have you defined Structured English Immersion?

   Are you providing SEI self-contained classrooms? Teaming/regrouping? Pull-out? Delivery of services in the regular classroom? Some other model?

3. What is going on in the secondary schools in your district? Have course assignments or program changed due to 227?

4. Do you have materials? What materials are being used?

5. What teacher training are you providing?

6. What positive outcomes have you seen?

7. What challenges or negative outcomes?

8. If asked to respond in a few words to the question, "What's really going on in California since Proposition 227 passed?" what would you say?

The CATESOL Journal

CATESOL EXCHANGE

Pay No Attention to the Man behind the Curtain!: Developing a Critical Stance Towards the Internet

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As responsible language teachers, we want to teach our students target languages by using the best resources at our disposal. In addition, we want to direct them towards language learning opportunities they can access on their own. Many factors need to be taken into consideration, however, before using any new textbook, technique, game, or method. Most teachers acknowledge the wisdom of such a cautious approach when it comes to print media—yet when it comes to technology, this precept is often swept under the rug. Hundreds of sites aimed towards ESL and other language learners are being developed each day on the World Wide Web. Language teachers discovering these sites might feel a little bit like Dorothy encountering all the marvels of Oz for the first time.

It is important to remember, however, that it is our responsibility to take into account students' attitudes, levels of ability, interests, and needs before committing ourselves to using Web sites in our teaching or encouraging our students to use Web sites on their own. It is equally important to take into account our own beliefs about learning and about teaching. Although it is tempting to "pay no attention" to the teaching methods behind the glitzy curtain of technology found on English teaching Web sites, we, like Dorothy, won't get very far until we do.

Possibilities and Pitfalls in Oz

The World Wide Web presents both possibilities and pitfalls to language teachers and students. One of the possibilities is access to informational sites, which can provide both easy access to a staggering array of

information and vast amounts of exposure to authentic language. Frizler (1995) lists some of the possibilities for ESL student writers on the Internet: exposure to natural language, increased motivation and responsibility for learning, creative outlets for publication, and raised awareness of global issues and concerns. "Furthermore," claims Frizler, "using various functions of the Internet, such as e-mail...can help ESOL students further develop their skills in reading (including skimming and scanning), writing for specific purposes and audiences, and most of all, critical thinking" (*http://thecity.sfsu.edu/~funweb/chapter2.htm*).

Possibilities for teachers include professional development via published articles and listserves, easy dissemination to students of online materials such as syllabi and course descriptions, and professional exposure of their work and ideas through Web page development or submission to online publications.

However, pitfalls abound for the unwary language teaching professional. As Liddell (1994) remarks about language software, "what we've seen is that technology applied to higher education has all focused on automating the mechanistic end...if there is one moral to the criticisms mentioned so far, it is that the media used in CALL [computer assisted language learning] are not the message; nor, apparently are the methods upon which media depends" (p. 165). These comments criticizing the reliance of many online resources on outdated methods apply to many sites aimed at ESL students as well.

Many mechanistic drill-type exercises are available online in which the magic veil of technology obscures the outdated theory behind the exercise. Perhaps the problem is that the siren call of technology and the overwhelming number of resources available on the World Wide Web too often overshadow their judicious use in language teaching. Armstrong and Yetter-Vassot (1994) echo the concern that technology has only provided another version of the repetitious grammar exercises that marked the Audio-Lingual method, replicating "its form-based nature, i.e., the programs simply provide fill-in-the-blank exercises using a glitzy, electronic format" (p. 477).

While the criticisms mentioned above focus more on the design of exercises found in language software and on the World Wide Web, other possible limitations include problems with the medium itself. Frizler (1995) worries that those students who lack interest or skill in writing may be at a disadvantage due to the predominantly literary aspect of the Internet. She also notes that non-conventional English on the Internet may possibly hinder some students. Another factor not to be overlooked is the students' expectations of the traditional classroom.

Technology-assisted language learning lends itself more towards learner-centered and/or decentralized teaching approaches whereby students have more control over their own pace and style of learning. While some students may enjoy this more independent style of learning, others may prefer the more traditional teacher-fronted classroom. At minimum, a teacher needs to consider training students on learning strategies appropriate to a lab if she decides to conduct a class online.

Second Language Acquisition Studies Look at the Man behind the Curtain

Both the World Wide Web and personal computers are still relatively new, and it is impossible to guess the extent of their influence on our lives, let alone on language learning. Many language teaching professionals share with their students anxiety about using computers and about finding their way around the World Wide Web. What Allwright and Bailey (1991) term "receptivity" addresses the attitudes of students towards, among other things, the teaching medium and materials. Thus, students' attitudes towards the use of technology in the classroom should not be ignored.

Wegerif (1998) reports a lowering of motivation for some students involved with an online chat component of a class due to the inability of those students to cross a threshold from "feeling like outsiders" to "feeling like insiders" during the course. One such student reports: "It is a cold medium. Unlike face to face communication you get no instant feedback. You don't know how people responded to your comments; they just go out into silence. This feels isolating and unnerving" (p. 38). Each classroom is different and teachers must use good judgment in deciding when it is appropriate to use technology from a pedagogical standpoint and from the standpoint of how it will affect their students' anxieties about learning.

Larsen-Freeman (1995), in her discussion of the influence of linguistics, psychology, and other disciplines on language teaching pedagogy, points out that teachers should develop an eclectic approach to teaching methodology. While these other disciplines can provide information and awareness about language, they should not be the only basis upon which we construct our understanding of teaching. Although CALL certainly could be part of any eclectic teaching plan, until more research is done on such weighty issues as how students' attitudes are affected by online coursework, how ESL students process the non-linear resources of the World Wide Web, and how classroom dynamics are impacted by technology, it is premature to make any positive pronouncements about the use of World Wide Web resources in the language classroom. Nonetheless, as more and more organizations, private citizens, and educational institutions are putting up

resources, exercises, and lesson plans on the Web every day, we can ill afford to ignore this potentially awesome resource.

Developing Critical Consumers

Collier (1995) supports classes that are highly interactive and that emphasize problem solving and discovery through thematic experience because they are likely to provide the kind of social setting conducive to natural language acquisition. Bean and Hedgcock (1996) also suggest that activities giving students practice in distinguishing between essential and nonessential information and discerning the underlying assumptions of texts go far towards preparing ESL students to deal with the varied and overwhelming kinds of input they often encounter in the real world.

The Web presents a free, flexible, and useful tool for this kind of teaching. Used well, the Web can provide a myriad of authentic texts and language experiences for students. Kimball (1997) argues that resources available on the World Wide Web may provide invaluable tools for helping students develop questioning minds:

> In the case of college classes, one way students can break with their overly-conditioned patterns of memorizing is to become immersed in subject matter like literature, economics, business administration, medicine, etc. Here, the Internet-generated materials can be flexibly arrayed to engage students with topics and cognitive tasks relevant to students' professional futures. (p. 129)

One possible solution to avoid pitfalls on the Internet, while at the same time developing the questioning mind so useful for students, involves teachers encouraging students to develop evaluative criteria for judging the different types of Web sites. Many kinds of Web sites are available on the Internet: quizzes, resource pages, links pages, multi-user domains, and others too numerous to mention. The kind of Web sites most valuable for teachers to use in evaluation exercises, I will refer to here as *informational sites*. Informational sites are those that are not put online specifically for teachers or for ESL students; rather, they exist in order to inform a general audience. Informational sites include such diverse representatives as the Peace Corps Web pages, the New York Times Web pages, and recipe indexes.

These informational sites can be used as examples to teach students important reading skills such as how to skim and scan for essential information, discover hidden assumptions, find evidence of author's credibility, judge the reasonable objectivity of an opinion, and look for supporting evidence. Harris (1997) talks about the Credibility, Accuracy, Reasonableness,

and Support (CARS) checklist for evaluating research sources. Applying the CARS criteria to evaluating informational sites helps students to begin developing the "questioning mind" that can serve them so well in their future learning experiences. To apply these criteria, one could ask: Does the Web site author have the credentials to inform the public about a particular topic? Is there a way to check the accuracy of the information posted on the site? Is the represented position reasonable?

One way to integrate the use of informational sites into a language course thoughtfully would be to show students Web sites that contain blatantly false, highly opinionated, or unverifiable information. The instructor can design activities for students to discover for themselves the credibility of the author or the adequacy of that author's supporting evidence. Teaching students the habit of checking resources for reasonable language and balanced presentation can help them learn to integrate these qualities into their own writing. Students can be directed towards the wide selection of resources available online that talk about evaluation.

Resource sites designed by information technology specialists such as Grassian (1998) and Auer (1997) or by teachers such as Tate & Alexander (1995) are only a few examples. Instructors can work with students in carefully choosing and evaluating the resources they intend to include in their presentation or informational paper on a current topic. With these kinds of evaluative activities, students soon not only learn skills necessary for successful use of the Internet but also begin to develop positive identities as English language Web site consumers.

Conclusion

Although valid concerns need to be addressed when using World Wide Web resources in the classroom, the resources represented online and their potential for helping students develop independent critical thinking skills are worth consideration. The global community represented online is an important resource that needs to be given the same importance and careful critique teachers give to textbooks everyday. The Internet need not be forbidding and confusing but can be used by thoughtful teachers as a flexible and abundant free resource for language teaching. Do not be afraid to look at the man behind the curtain; just be ready to teach your students the skills necessary to see through the glitzy act.

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The CATESOL Journal

CATESOL EXCHANGE

Simplified Literature in the Intermediate ESL Classroom

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In recent years, the benefits of sustained silent reading (SSR) for pleasure have become an increasing focus of second language acquisition research. The emphasis has been on the benefits of students choosing their own books to read at home. While there is some merit in this, SSR also poses some problems for both the learner and the teacher. Finding suitable material can be a challenge, and it is difficult to verify that students are actually doing the reading and doing it in such a way that they gain optimum benefit from it. At the same time, a good deal of the reading that teachers traditionally expect of students in class follows the narrow and not entirely motivating formula of pre-reading activities, silent reading (usually a short story), a comprehension check, vocabulary work, and grammar exercises. In other words, it consists of bottom-up processing activities that are not particularly communicative in nature and that may well be one of the reasons students inwardly groan when reading is on the agenda.

According to Dubin and Bycina (1991), "an active ESL/EFL academic reading class should emphasize both reading to learn (activities that stress comprehension of subject matter content) and learning by doing (activities that call for utilization of the ideas of the text)" (p. 200). It is the latter, crucial step of critical reading in which learners have the opportunity to evaluate information that is often neglected in classroom practice. If we insist on using reading as an end in itself rather than as a means to an end (i.e., communication), then we are not creating an opportunity for our students to interact with the text and derive pleasure from the experience.

Current SLA research suggests that schema building, interaction, and integration of skills are important components of the learning process

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(Hawkins, 1991). Simplified readers for intermediate level ESL students offer an opportunity to include all of these components in a manner that is both meaningful and motivating. Several series of books on the market are suitable for this purpose, including Oxford's *Bookworms* and Penguin's *Readers* series, the former having accompanying cassette tapes and the latter sometimes corresponding to recent movies (e.g., *Rain Man*). Both series have books suitable for a variety of levels, with selections ranging from classics to contemporary popular literature. (Please refer to the Appendix for a selected list of such literature and its publishers.)

In these simplified novels, the continuity of reading, discussing, and writing about issues *over time* serves to pique student interest and can transform reading from the prevalent classroom practice of simply studying short stories and articles that frequently have no logical connection to each other into a meaningful, holistic, and integrated learning project.

Brown (1994) argues against simplified texts, claiming that "Simplifying, or 'doctoring up' an existing short story or description is... not only unnecessary but also a disservice to students who are thereby deprived of original material with its natural redundancy, humor, wit, and other captivating features" (p. 299). He goes on to say that enough *simple* texts are available to preempt our need to resort to *simplified* texts. However, if we apply this viewpoint to novels, we deny our intermediate students access to much of the literature available to native speakers. It would be unreasonable, even cruel, to introduce this group of learners to the original works of Jane Austen and expect them to make much sense of what they read. However, exposing them to the simplified version of novels such as *Sense And Sensibility* provides the rare opportunity to explore a full-length plot with all its twists and turns.

Furthermore, because simplified novels pare down descriptions of characters and events to a minimum, they provide a virtual invitation for students to "fill the gaps" and flesh out descriptions from their own perspectives. In simplified literature, the author's viewpoint is not imposed on the reader to the usual extent, thereby allowing readers the chance to define the book in a way that might not have been possible with the unabridged original text.

Because I view reading as an interactive, communicative activity rather than as an end in itself, I suggest that teachers select books that are *at*, as opposed to *slightly above*, their students' current reading levels. When students have to grapple with the intricacies of plot in order to interpret the text and then use the information for communicative purposes, exposing them to a plethora of unfamiliar vocabulary or complex structures can interfere with the process and frustrate student attempts.

By providing comprehensible reading material, we are giving them the opportunity to succeed and do what most of us do with books in the first place: read them for pleasure. This in itself can be an intrinsically motivating and intensely satisfying experience.

In order to motivate students and ensure that meaningful communication occurs, the most beneficial approach is to explain at the outset that they will be reading a simplified book, and that the aim of the process is to interact orally with each other in response to what they read. Many students are daunted by the prospect of reading an entire book, simplified or not, so when they first get their simplified class readers, the opening activity needs to be motivating, relatively easy, and brief.

For example, students can be placed in groups to scan for information about the general features of the book (author, publisher, etc.), and the teacher can give some background information about the author. Often this can be as interesting as the book itself. (Consider the case of Gaston Leroux, author of *The Phantom of the Opera*, who had a morbid fascination with death and the occult after discovering that he had been born in a mortuary when his mother had gone into labor unexpectedly during the course of a long journey.)

Students can also examine the cover picture and attempt to predict what the book will be about. The synopsis on the back cover can be copied and cut out phrase by phrase for students to reassemble into a paragraph in pairs. In this manner, by the end of the first hour students will have activated their schemata and worked interactively using integrated skills. They are now psychologically ready to start reading the book proper.

I usually find it helpful for students to read one chapter in advance of where we are in class, as this provides them with the opportunity to read first at their own pace. In class, I read aloud each chapter of a book, usually in one chapter segments. Since students have already done silent reading at home, they can now follow along while being exposed to a native speaker's stress and intonation patterns. Following this second reading, I ask the students to orally summarize passages from the book in response to my questions. This is a necessary step because although students often have little trouble understanding a text at the sentence and paragraph levels, comprehending the intricacies of plot can prove far more difficult. It is therefore vital to check for understanding before proceeding on to more cognitively demanding activities.

At this stage, all the students are now in possession of the same information. This is a time of discovery, unpredictability, and risk taking, as students in small groups interact with each other to share their interpretations of information. It is important that the same format is not followed for

each chapter, since this would reduce class activities to a predictable, formulaic experience. Suggested activities at this stage include those requiring students to express an opinion, manipulate information, and do some limited vocabulary study.

In the early chapters of a book, graphic organizers can be useful for correlating information about characters and plot. However, I frequently ban the use of paper and pencil altogether, thereby giving the students no other recourse than to talk to each other. Such discussion provides an authentic opportunity to use modals and conditionals as students express what they think certain characters should do, or what they themselves would do in similar circumstances. Studying proverbs and idioms and deciding which may be relevant to a particular scene or character can also create a great deal of discussion as students work together to problem solve.

If there is an accompanying movie, students can read the chapter in the book before watching the corresponding scene, as this tends to assist their comprehension. Fifteen minutes of viewing is often sufficient, as it is difficult for students to maintain the requisite high level of concentration much beyond that. Teachers wishing to have their students view the entire movie might consider having students identify differences between the movie and the book, and engaging them in discussions concerning why the movie industry chose to make these changes.

When the class has made sufficient progress through the book, giving a team quiz based on factual and lexical information encountered is a motivating activity. This is also an informal way of assessing student understanding. A more formal approach to assessment may be in the form of a plot summary written by the teacher and administered as a dictation or a cloze exercise.

Written activities might include having students write a letter from the point of view of one of the characters to another, write a diary entry from a given character's point of view, write (and act out) a script for one of the scenes in the book, or predict what the characters will be doing ten years hence. Other interesting activities might include casting well-known actors and actresses for the main parts, renaming the book, and discussing the moral of the story.

Reading literature, then, is not simply about finding information from texts but about involving the readers in a direct experience through which they will naturally make connections between what they have read and their existing knowledge. Yet these connections are fashioned by each individual's unique cultural background, and it is this interaction that provides the occasion for genuine discovery. Students are intrinsically motivated by the teacher having enough faith in their language abilities to trust them

with a "real" book. When we encourage them to read between the lines, make interpretations, and offer opinions, we create a classroom atmosphere free from the concepts of correct and incorrect. Students are able to express and support their own ideas and feelings, and teaching gives way to truly meaningful communicative learning.

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Oxford Bookworms. T. Hedge, (Series Ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Penguin Readers. D. Strange, (Series Ed.). London: The Penguin Group.

Appendix

Selected Publishers of Simplified Literature for Adult ESL Learners

Educational Design, Inc. (http://www.educationaldesign.com)
345 Hudson Street, New York, NY 10002 • (800) 221-9372

- The Classics Series (Grades 1-5 reading level)

Oxford University Press (http://www.oup-usa.org/esl)
198 Madison Avenue, New York, NY 10016 • (800) 451-7556

- Oxford Bookworms (Beginning - Intermediate)
- Oxford Bookworms Green Series (Beginning – Low Intermediate)
- Storylines (Beginning – Low Intermediate)
- Oxford Progressive Readers (Intermediate – Advanced)

Pearson Educational ESL (http://www.pearson.com)
1330 Ave. of the Americas, New York, NY 10019 • (800) 221-9372

- Penguin Readers (Beginning – Advanced)
- Longman Originals (High Beginning – Low Intermediate)
- Longman Classics (Low Intermediate – High Intermediate)

Saddleback Educational, Inc. (http://www.sdlback.com)
Three Watson Street, Irvine, CA 92618 • (714) 540-4010

- Saddleback Classics (Fry Readability Level 4.0)
- Illustrated Classics (Fry Readability Level 3.8 - 4.8)
- Adapted Classics (Fry Readability Level 5.0 – 7.0)

The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

Teaching Science to Language Minority Students: Theory and Practice.

Judith W. Rosenthal.
Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters, 1996.

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The changing demographics of American society have impacted education in more than one way: Not only have school enrollments soared, but the very nature of education has been and is continuing to be questioned. Higher education, it seems, has not escaped the far-reaching consequences of the growing number of students for whom English is a second language. Yet, while many ESL classes strive to help students cope with the language and content difficulties of their coursework, in order to insure the success of these students, content-area faculty need to learn how to adjust their teaching to the peculiarities of ESL students' needs. Fortunately for these educators, Judith W. Rosenthal has written a helpful book entitled *Teaching Science to Language Minority Students: Theory and Practice.* In this book, Rosenthal aims at helping science instructors understand the fundamental issues involved in making science accessible to all students, including those for whom English is not their primary language.

Students of limited English proficiency (particularly undergraduates) are rarely mentioned in the literature about science education and reform. This book helps to fill that gap by providing the reader with timely and useful information. Ms. Rosenthal is well qualified to deal with the subject of teaching science and English. She holds a BA in human biology, a Ph.D. in physiological chemistry, an MA in bilingual/bicultural education, and has had extensive teaching experience. Moreover, she presents her findings in a clear and precise writing style, with excellent organization and ample

substantiation. A theoretical background of second language acquisition and learning styles is presented as firm support to the author's recommendations of specific ways to improve science instruction for students of limited English proficiency.

The rationale for this book is provided in chapter 1, "Defining the Issues." Here, brief histories of language use in the U.S. and of educational issues related to the immigrant experience precede Rosenthal's five reasons for including undergraduate English language learners in plans for science education reform. Chapter 2, "Second Language Acquisition Theory and its Application to Undergraduate Science Teaching," focuses on what research tells us about the processes of second language (L2) acquisition. Key concepts in L2 pedagogy—such as S. Krashen's and J. Cummins' contributions to our present-day understanding of second language acquisition regarding the distinction between language acquisition and learning, comprehensible input, the affective filter, and error correction—are explained and considered alongside other topics such as age factors, accented English, the "gift" for L2 learning, and the difficulties encountered by ESL students when they are enrolled in mainstream content-area courses. Such theoretical background proves useful when considering its implications for L2 students in mainstream science courses.

Rosenthal's third chapter, "The Many Cultures of the Science Classroom," examines the various aspects of culture that pertain to the science classroom: what is appropriate to teach, from what perspective, and how students' prior knowledge affects the acquisition of new information. Although these culture-related topics may seem irrelevant to science instruction, the author emphasizes that there is no science without language, and that culture is deeply ingrained in language. This book could not ignore students' learning styles, which the author deals with in chapter 4, "Learning Styles, Science Instruction and Ethnicity". After a discussion of the theory and classification of learning styles, there follows a close look at how these learning styles affect students' achievement and behavior.

The remainder of the book concentrates on recommendations and suggestions derived from principles of good teaching and successful ESL practices. Chapter 5, "How Instructors Can Help Limited English Proficient Students in Traditional Sciences Courses," contains numerous strategies that faculty members can use to facilitate the instruction of science to English language learners. Designed in a question and answer format, this chapter addresses issues of lecture, text, laboratory, written assignments, testing, and resources that may or may not be available on campus. One sound reason for instructors to adopt the strategies presented here is the fact that most of the techniques described do not require any specialized

training to be put into practice, nor do they lead to the lowering of standards or the watering down of content.

The relationship between language and culture is further explored in chapter 6, "Issues Related to Rhetoric, Writing, and Reading." Explicit graphs, creative writing activities useful for learning science, and illustrative tables reinforce the author's argument that "language is so central to the teaching of science that it is impossible to imagine a 'language free' science classroom" (p.104). Chapters 7 and 9 provide in-depth case studies that describe how individual faculty members as well as college-wide programs have addressed the needs of English language learners enrolled in science classes. This information was made available by faculty, staff, and administrators whose names and addresses are cited at the end of each case study, should the reader want to obtain additional information.

Chapter 8, "The Theoretical Basis for Linguistically Modified Science Instruction," describes two approaches currently used to help science students while they are still learning English. One is content-based L2 instruction in ESL. In this approach, English and content-area instruction are linked in the adjunct, the sheltered, and the adjunct-sheltered models. The other approach is the bilingual mode of instruction, where introductory science courses are taught partially or completely in the students' native language. These theoretical approaches are brought to life in the last chapter, which documents many creative and unconventional ways of teaching science to undergraduates who are still learning English.

The layout of the book allows the reader to locate specific information easily. Numerous subheadings, succinct chapter overviews, sidebars that cover a variety of topics related to the main text, as well as a useful glossary, a detailed index, and comprehensive references to the most recent developments in the field all facilitate reader interaction. As part of a new position currently being expressed by the scientific community—one that dramatically departs from its previously prevailing elitism—this book is a refreshing "alternative" view on teaching science to all students in contemporary American society. Both the content and the format of the book make it extremely worthwhile reading.

The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition: A Rationale for Pedagogy

James Coady and Thomas Huckin (Editors)
New York: Cambridge University Press, 1997

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Is vocabulary development so easy for ESL students that teachers can ignore it in their classes and focus instead on other areas? Although some teachers may believe this, many contributors to this book disagree. James Coady, one of the editors of *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition,* maintains that ESL students who need to use English for academic purposes will benefit from attention to vocabulary development. The five parts of this book offer a carefully researched, broad view of vocabulary development for researchers, teachers, and teacher trainers.

Part I provides the background. Zimmerman (chapter 1) discusses the attention given to vocabulary in various approaches from the Grammar Translation Method to the Natural Approach and beyond. His conclusion is that "until recently...vocabulary instruction has not been a priority in...methodology" (p. 17). In chapter 2, Laufer points out that many second language readers, regardless of their academic abilities, are handicapped because of their insufficient vocabulary in English.

Laufer explains why vocabulary problems interfere with reading comprehension in L2, noting that learners need to reach a threshold level of 3,000 word families before they can transfer reading strategies from their first language to the target language. When they have learned 3,000 word families, or about 5,000 lexical items, learners will be familiar with about 90% to 95% of the words appearing in an average text, claims Laufer. Consequently, such learners may be better equipped to figure out most of the remaining words from context and to grasp the global meaning of new texts.

In addition, Laufer discusses many types of lexical problems that can interfere with learners' reading. One type of problem arises because learners think they know certain words when they do not. The largest class of these words is synforms (i.e., lexical forms that are similar in sound and form but do not have the same meaning, such as *accept* and *except).* A persistent problem with synforms is that students often misinterpret one synform for another. A second type of lexical problem arises because learners cannot guess words from their context, despite training in guessing strategies. In chapter 3, Koda notes how learner's L1 writing system may influence the learner's choice of lexical processing strategies.

Part II of the book covers three case studies. Parry (chapter 4) focuses on two students' comprehension of texts and on the strategies they use when processing self-selected, unfamiliar words. She notes that different strategies work best for different purposes. According to Parry, a holistic (or "top-down") approach works well to develop recognition of high-frequency words in situations where grasping even an approximate meaning of these words is adequate. However, she continues, an analytic (or "bottom-up") approach is best for learning words used in academic texts because this strategy helps students more accurately understand these texts.

In chapter 5, Altman, examining her acquisition of Hebrew, focuses on the growth of her own productive vocabulary. Next, Grabe and Stoller (chapter 6) describe how a sojourner in Brazil was able to increase his receptive vocabulary, as well as his comprehension of the news genre, simply by reading news articles in Portuguese with a bilingual dictionary and by watching Brazilian news on television. This chapter shows how useful a systematic reading routine can be, even when the learner is not attending language classes.

Part III consists of empirical research. A study by Yang (chapter 7) describes the learning of an artificial language and the cognitive skills students achieved during five weeks. Arnaud and Savignon (chapter 8) describe the performance of four groups of French EFL learners on a vocabulary test of rare words and idiomatic phrases in English. The authors found that the most advanced group approximated the native control group in knowledge of rare words but lagged significantly in knowledge of idiomatic phrases. The researchers recommend that the teaching of idiomatic phrases be included in language programs.

Paribakht and Wesche (chapter 9) compared the performance of two groups of university ESL students on vocabulary tests after exposure to one of two treatments. One group read theme-based articles and relied on incidental vocabulary learning, while the other group completed theme-focused readings that were followed by vocabulary exercises on targeted

words. The researchers found that although both groups significantly improved in vocabulary, the reading-plus-vocabulary group significantly out-performed the reading-only group. The practical applications of this study include the endorsement of contextualized reading and of vocabulary exercises that consist of multiple exposures to the same words and to different types of processing.

Part IV focuses on pedagogy. Hulstijn (chapter 10) suggests that learners can be trained to use a keyword mnemonic technique to remember concrete words. This learning strategy applies both verbal and visual associations to new words. Coady (chapter 11) gives an overview of the research on extensive reading in L2 vocabulary acquisition. He concludes that findings on this topic are mixed. Readers clearly increase their vocabulary through extensive reading, but beginners need to have sufficient vocabulary to read with comprehension. To promote effective reading, Coady recommends the careful selection of books and, possibly, the use of graded readers.

Nation and Newton (chapter 12) offer research support for vocabulary development through carefully designed communicative tasks that lead to incidental vocabulary learning. Their research found that a tandem sequence of two communicative activities could be particularly effective: First, an information-gap task maximizes students' opportunities to negotiate the form of words; second, a ranking task results in further negotiation about word meaning. The authors offer additional suggestions about classroom activities.

Lewis (chapter 13) discusses the lexical approach, a new approach to language teaching, which "challenges a traditional view of word boundaries" (p. 17). Lewis notes that language consists of multiword chunks: polywords, collocations (word partnerships), institutionalized utterances, and sentence frames/heads. The lexical approach includes use of receptive, awareness-raising activities. Important assumptions concerning this approach are discussed in chapter 1 and methodological implications are listed in chapter 14.

In Part V, (chapter 14) Coady synthesizes the research on L2 vocabulary acquisition, listing attitudes that influence L2 vocabulary acquisition and critiquing the four main approaches to L2 vocabulary instruction. These approaches are: 1) context alone and incidental acquisition of vocabulary; 2) strategy instruction; 3) development plus explicit instruction; and 4) traditional classroom vocabulary activities. He also examines several areas of research: L1 vocabulary acquisition, collocation, reading research, bottom-up processing, lexicon size, and dictionary instruction.

Despite its many outstanding chapters, this book has a shortcoming: None of the chapters focuses on K-12 children. Thus, there is little discussion of children's vocabulary acquisition. Because some students enrolled in

teaching English as a second language (TESL) programs will become K-12 teachers or are already teaching in schools, they would benefit from chapters that examine limited English proficient children's vocabulary acquisition. Perhaps Coady and Huckin's next edition could meet this need.

Aside from this drawback, *Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition* addresses a neglected topic in ESL pedagogy by offering an excellent balance of articles on the four approaches to L2 vocabulary instruction; therefore, I highly recommend it to teachers and materials writers. It can also be used as a supplementary text in a graduate course on TESL theory and methods, especially with students planning to teach ESL/EFL in higher education.

Further, I recommend several chapters for use with undergraduates; students in my undergraduate TESL practicum class read chapters 2, 9, 10, 11, and 12 because these chapters are especially accessible, offer diverse views of the research, and include concrete teaching ideas. Clearly, this book is an excellent resource for TESL students and professionals.

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REVIEW

Tapestry: The Newbury House Guide to Writing

M. E. Sokolik
Boston: Heinle & Heinle, 1996

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All teachers wish that their students would see writing as real communication, but very few writing texts help students to achieve this goal. M.E. Sokolik's *The Newbury House Guide to Writing* is one of these few. Claiming that audience, purpose, and culture are factors that influence written communication, Sokolik encourages students to develop themselves as writers. Presenting rhetorical forms in context, Sokolik provides authentic, culturally informative writing selections that can be used as the basis for a range of process-based activities designed to improve students' writing.

This book is part of a series that builds upon the concepts originally presented in Scarcella and Oxford's (1992) *The Tapestry of Language Learning: The Individual in the Communicative Classroom.* The volumes in this series are for designed for sequential use by ESL students at post-secondary institutions and range from beginning levels through advanced. The purpose of the entire series is to interweave the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing into a mutually supportive whole so that students may transfer improvement in one language skill area to the others. Students work with information about American culture, history, and social concerns that is presented via authentic text selections emphasizing each of the four language skills.

This latest writing guide is tailored for "bridge" level students: i.e., those students ready to cross over into native-speaker English writing courses. In this volume there are short stories, journal entries, poetry, and letters illustrative of various rhetorical and narrative genres; all selections are accompanied by discussion questions from both a reader's and a writer's point of view.

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The Newbury House Guide to Writing has ten chapters, logically grouped into three sections. Chapters 1 through 3 cover the skills a writer needs to generate ideas, to extract information from reading, and to decide on the purpose and the audience for a text. Chapters 4 through 7 present four different types of essays, and are the bases for student writing assignments. Each of these chapters is devoted to a particular strategy for writing (e.g., informing and persuading) that students are likely to encounter in various college courses.

These seven core chapters also include an introduction to various strategies, models, and activities for practice, a writing and revising plan, and additional longer readings by different authors. The writing assignments are developed using a "process approach". Preparatory exercises are used to generate writing topics; these are followed by exercises to organize first drafts. Next, peer response questions, revision plans, and finally, draft evaluation charts and checklists are used to complete the process as students work their way through the various stages of a text's composition. The result is an easy-to-follow path through the skills and responsibilities required of writers each time that they undertake a writing task.

Chapters 8 through 10 constitute a miniature grammar and style reference work, incorporating examples, exercises, and suggestions for improving writing. Familiar exercises, such as "quickwriting" and completing tables, offer a variety of ways for students to practice the material presented. In addition, a glossary of grammar terminology used in the *Tapestry* series is provided.

Several features recur throughout most of the chapters in this book. Small informative sidebars, called "Threads," provide definitions of unfamiliar terms, give brief biographical information about the authors of the reading selections, and offer additional information about the people and the places referred to in the readings. "For Discussion" sections follow each of the readings, posing questions related to the reading's content as well as to its rhetorical features such as purpose, audience, and style. Also, one- to three-line "Learning Strategies" appear in the introductory and writing sections of the chapters suggesting ways for students to work more efficiently.

Well-constructed charts and tables are prominent throughout the volume. Many concisely organize important information and examples; others provide useful outlines for organizing and revising, giving peer response to a partner, and self-editing. Ungraded "quickwrites" provide students with practice in writing without the pressure of evaluation. This variety of activities stimulates further thinking and provides grist for the students' writing mill.

A major strength of this volume is its general usability, a result of the thorough evaluation it received from approximately 40 pilot testing sites set up by the publisher to assess all materials proposed for the *Tapestry* series. The materials included were tried and critiqued before going to general

publication, and the large number of sites ensured a wealth of input from a range of users. The diversity of the readings and activities and the applicability of the strategies and skills to writing certainly reflect this care.

Another particularly strong feature of this volume is the use of extended, authentic "Additional Readings." Too often, language instruction can brush over meaningful communication in writing in favor of academic, formal, and vocabulary concerns. Especially when the student audience is at the near-mainstream level, attention to discourse strategies should begin to supplant the formal, grammar focus of many ESL programs. At every stage, language skills may be enhanced when students work with authentic readings about the communities that they are entering.

However, the readings also present a possible limitation for students using this book. The readings are all models of polished professional writing, approximately two pages in length in the first three chapters. In Chapters 4 through 7, the "Additional Readings" are at least triple the length of previous selections. One chapter's selection contains very erudite, persuasive rhetoric. Vastly different from the other readings, which are mainly narrative and expository, it is a genre with which few ESL students are likely to have had experience. Even though some ESL students may have spent a number of years in U.S. schools, multiple-page readings from unfamiliar genres can still present difficulties for advanced students, especially those oriented to technical fields of study such as engineering or mathematics. The students may feel pressure to match the style and caliber of the professional writing and they may become frustrated if they cannot.

Despite this potential drawback, *The Newbury House Guide to Writing* is a welcome addition to the resources available to ESL students who are getting ready to make the transition from non-native-speaker to native-speaker English writing courses. The interesting, culturally informative readings, relevant discussion questions, useful strategies, and comprehensible methods of practice and evaluation combine to make good writing skills accessible to students; in addition, authentic examples of different rhetorical strategies are provided to illustrate that these skills are valued in writing across many disciplines. Sokolik's coherent presentation of writing as a multiform medium of cultural communication makes this book a worthwhile addition to literacy instruction materials.

Reference

Scarcella, R. C., & Oxford, R. L. (1992). *The tapestry of language learning: The individual in the communicative classroon.* Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

Pronunciation Power, Version 1.0

English Computerized Learning, Inc.
South Edmonton, Alberta: Blackstone Multimedia Corporation. 1996.

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For learning pronunciation, it is generally acknowledged that nothing beats a private tutor. After all, a tutor can describe and model articulation, give immediate feedback, and provide all sorts of exercises – all to the learner's heart's content. Now there is pronunciation software available that simulates some of the advantages one would enjoy with a private tutor, giving it an edge over other forms of self-study.

Pronunciation Power, a CD-ROM designed for intermediate to advanced learners acquainted with phonetic alphabets, contains a variety of easy-to-use interactive activities. Users begin by selecting one of the 52 vowels, consonants, and consonant clusters. They hear it modeled, and can have it repeated as many times as they desire. Users then may choose from three activities related to the phoneme: "Articulation Lessons," "Speech Analysis," and "Exercises."

Articulation lessons begin with a computerized sagittal section (or cross-section of the vocal tract) showing the proper articulatory position of the speech organs (lips, teeth, tongue, palate, etc.). These lessons also provide an indication of voicing and manner of articulation ("full," "released," and "semi-obstructed"), in addition to a written description of the articulation (which can be heard with a click on the speaker icon). So, for example, if the selected phoneme is /d/, the program shows the tongue moving between the teeth, a purple wave indicating semi-obstruction coming out the mouth, and a wavy line representing the vocal cords as a symbol of voicing. Users can repeat the demonstration, and have control over the speed of presentation. The module also contains an option called "Front View" that allows users to see a pair of real lips articulating the phoneme or

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cluster and an on-screen "Suggestion" box that provides further details on some aspect of the phoneme or cluster to help learners differentiate between similar phonemes.

"Speech Analysis" modules allow users to see a spectrogram representing sound waves of the phoneme or cluster they have chosen, to listen to the model pronunciation, and to record their own sample (assuming the availability of a microphone). This sample is then converted into a second spectrogram for comparison with the model. This is probably the most interactive part of the program in that the learner's input is given immediate feedback. Users can listen to both the model pronunciation and their own pronunciation repeatedly to analyze the points of similarity and contrast.

As a motivational tool, these spectrograms are very effective; for many users, the chance to see a visual representation of their own speech may be very exciting. The contrast between the phonemes in the consonants and consonant clusters in the model spectrograms is generally clear. However, it should be noted that some of the model waveforms (particularly those of the high and mid-lax vowels) look almost identical, and thus may not serve the desired feedback purpose.

The "Exercises" modules present the user with four choices: "Sample Words," "Sentences," "Comparative Words," and "Listening Discrimination". The latter two focus on minimal pairs. Each sub-section provides model words and sentences which users can listen to and repeat. Here, too, there is an option for users to record their own samples to compare against the models. Words are chosen that demonstrate a variety of spellings of the phoneme where possible. In addition, a highlighting function indicates in pink the phoneme or cluster in question within each word. The "Listening Discrimination" sub-section asks users to listen to a model and choose between two contextualized minimal pairs according to what they hear. They can listen as many times as needed before making the choice and getting feedback: a green check mark (correct) or a red X (incorrect) next to the sentence.

Despite the many laudable features of *Pronunciation Power*, some instructors may take issue with the ways that some of the phonemes and clusters are presented here. The developers are Canadian, so there may be some differences between their dialect and other North American dialects. The most salient example is the /aw/ phoneme, for which the 'suggestion' is: "Remember—this is two sounds blended together: /ə/ and /w/." This, of course, is probably not true for many North American dialects. In addition, no distinction is made between the stressed and unstressed schwa, or between /ɔ/ and /ɑ/. In the latter case, the former symbol is used, while the modeled sound seems to be closer to the /ɑ/.

There are also some unfortunate omissions. No reference is made to the flap, the glottal stop, or the velar /l/. The program has a conspicuous lack of adjustments in connected speech (reduction, blending, assimilation, etc.). Finally, in most of the models, unstressed medial and final t's are noticeably aspirated, thus resulting in what some may perceive as an overly careful, unnatural pronunciation.

It should also be noted that this program is limited to the segmentals; practice in stress, rhythm, and intonation is not offered. Of course, that would double the scope of the program—perhaps *Pronunciation Power, Part 2* is in order?

The program comes with an on-line user manual that describes in detail the various features (for example, it provides helpful illustrations of good and bad matches of waveforms). However, the program itself is very accessible and even without consulting the user manual, it is easy to navigate and understand its various components.

Overall, *Pronunciation Power* provides English learners with an original, entertaining, and visually stimulating way to practice most of the phonemes and clusters they will need in their English repertoire. Even with a few limitations and drawbacks, the program has great potential to motivate its users toward producing more nativelike pronunciation. Thus, although *Pronunciation Power* may not be as effective as a private tutor, it comes pretty close.

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The CATESOL Journal

REVIEW

Grade Quick!

Jackson Software
www. jacksoncorp.com

TOMI CUNNINGHAM
City College of San Francisco

Do you love teaching, but hate grading? I do, and when I moved from teaching noncredit ESL classes to credit classes, I was faced with this "necessary evil." My initial paper gradebooks were cumbersome, multi-layered systems of attendance records, letter and/or number grades for quizzes, tests, and essays, and pluses and minuses for classroom participation and homework; trying to boil all the data down into one final letter grade was overwhelming. I knew I needed help and I turned to technology to find it. I downloaded the gradebook software *GradeQuick!* from the publisher's web site (http://www.jacksoncorp.com.) for a free 30-day trial period.

Two years later, I'm still excited about this program! It's easy to use, and it does more than just provide instant computations of final averages. *GradeQuick!* gives you the power and flexibility to design a grading system that fits your exact needs. Do you weight various types of work? Do you weight the first and second half of the semester differently? Do you lower grades for late or incomplete work? Do you give extra credit points? *GradeQuick!* will perform these types of calculations with one simple click. With minimal training, you can devise a grading system that is objective, consistent, understandable to students, and manageable to calculate.

A few of the helpful features of *GradeQuick!* are:

- *Keeps track of student information:* Enter nicknames, phone numbers, ID numbers, birthdays, anything you want.
- *Categorizes your assignments:* Set up your own categories (homework, in-class essays, quizzes, tests, midterm essay, etc.) and the software subtotals the scores for each one.

- *Sets the grading interval: Grade Quick!* allows you to set the grading intervals within the semester if you want to distinguish assignments and grades up to the midterm from those received after midterm.
- *Variety of weighting options:* You can use an unweighted grading system, or you can set the relative weight or importance by individual assignment, category, marking period, or all three. Best of all, if you are a novice at this, the program allows you to try out various weighting scenarios without making the changes permanent.
- *Customizes individual student reports:* You can easily print a wide variety of pre-formatted reports. I use one that includes the name of each assignment, the date, the total number of points possible, the number of points received, the subtotals for each category, and the grade received. I can add personal notes to individual students (*"Your written work has shown great improvement. Keep up the good work!"*) or a general memo that everyone receives (*"If you have questions about your grade, please make an appointment to talk with me about it."*) You can also print out blank gradebook spreadsheets to enter student scores manually before transferring them into the computer.

The software includes a myriad of other options, such as customizing your grade scales, using numbers, letters, symbols or your own grade names, tracking attendance, dropping lowest scores, graphing grade distribution and student progress, and using attendance to change the grade average. Last but not least, Jackson Software's Help Line is staffed by knowledgable people!

The CATESOL Journal

Guidelines for Submission

The CATESOL Journal is the official journal of the California Association of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (CATESOL). It is a refereed journal reflecting the interests and concerns of the organization's membership. The journal is published annually.

Aims and Scope

The CATESOL Journal provides a forum for issues in the teaching of English as a second or foreign language, standard English as a second dialect, and bilingual education.

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Articles can be of three types:

1. Full-length articles (25-30 pages including bibliography): Articles should focus on research, innovative teaching techniques, and situations encountered in the classroom at all levels from which readers are able to generalize insights to their own particular situations.
2. CATESOL Exchange pieces (up to 15 pages): These contributions concern personal viewpoints on issues, techniques, or classroom practices which are particularly effective.
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Manuscripts should conform to the conventions specified in the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (4th ed.). Authors should include a title page with name, affiliation, address, telephone/fax number, email, and a fifty-word personal statement (for full-length articles only). The remaining pages should be numbered consecutively, with a 150-word abstract as page one. The page number and title

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should be placed in the upper right-hand corner. No reference to the author(s) should appear in the manuscript itself. It is understood that manuscripts submitted to *The CATESOL Journal* have not been previously published and are not under consideration for publication elsewhere. Manuscripts submitted will not be returned.

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